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ABSTRACT

The New England Multifunctional Resource Center (MRC) for Language and Culture in Education is funded by OBEMLA, Brown University School of Education, and the Education Alliance for Equity in the Nation's Schools. The MRC's service area encompasses Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. The MRC collects and disseminates information on bilingual education program administration. This report contains information in four sections: (1) administrator training materials, including checklists developed to assist administrators in monitoring program components, highlights of coursework for in-depth district-level team training, and samples of three district plans for program improvement; (2) writings by members of the New England Superintendents' Leadership Council; (3) agendas and handouts from selected administrators' conferences held in 1993-94; and (4) a collection of articles dealing with administration of bilingual and other minority language programs and some more general articles on administrative topics. (MSE)

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ED 379 939

Program Administration in Bilingual Education

Prepared for Task 6
Contract #T292010001

New England Multifunctional Resource Center for Language and Culture in Education

Service Area 1:

Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont,
Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island

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FOR EQUITY IN THE NATION'S SCHOOLS

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PROGRAM ADMINISTRATION IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

prepared for
Task 6

New England Multifunctional Resource Center
for Language and Culture in Education

Service Area: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont,
Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island

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1. INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

The Brown University Education Alliance MRC-1 collects and disseminates information on Program Administration in Bilingual Education. This document reflects work on this topic by MRC staff during the 1993-94 contract year. The information gathered has been divided into five sections:

Administration Training Materials

This section provides an array of checklists developed to assist administrators in monitoring program components, highlights coursework for in-depth district level team training and provides samples of three district plans on how to improve programs for LEP children.

Writings by Members of the Superintendents' Leadership Council

This section provides insight into the work which Superintendents have done through the New England Superintendents' Leadership Council. Samples of the Innovator and articles by Superintendents show the high degree of commitment and involvement in LEP education which this group has achieved.

Conference Agendas and Selected Handouts

This section includes selected agendas and handouts from selected administrators' conferences held during the 1993-94 contract year.

Database and Selected Articles

This section contains both books and articles that deal with administration of bilingual and other language minority programs, as well as more general articles on administrative topics.

If you would like additional copies of this document or have specific questions regarding its content, please contact the New England MRC at (401) 274-9548.

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Supervisor Checklists

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NEW ENGLAND MULTIFUNCTIONAL RESOURCE CENTER
FOR
LANGUAGE AND CULTURE IN EDUCATION

A Program of The Education Alliance at Brown University

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Charlene Heintz, Director, MRC

A Consortium of:

Brown University
University of Hartford
University of Massachusetts
University of Southern Maine

SUPERVISOR CHECKLISTS: RESOURCES FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS WHO SUPERVISE TEACHERS PROVIDING INSTRUCTION TO LINGUISTIC MINORITY STUDENTS

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Spring 1994

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INTRODUCTION: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT

During the last several years, the New England Multifunctional Resource Center at Brown University (MRC#1) has received numerous requests from school administrators and state department coordinators in the New England region to provide training and technical assistance about strategies for supervising bilingual, ESL and mainstream teachers who provide instructional services to linguistic minorities as well as strategies for monitoring the services provided linguistic minority students.

1.1 District Requests

Administrators, such as program directors, supervisors, principals and superintendents, were mainly interested in accessing checklists for supervisors from regional school districts with similar supervisory needs or in receiving training and technical assistance in developing supervisory checklists. This increase in such requests was due to five reasons:

- In the urban districts, budget constraints or district reorganization based on school reform agendas have led to the reassignment or firing of bilingual/ESL directors. Often services for LEP students have been made the responsibility of a "special populations directors" whose background is usually in special education or Chapter 1. In a majority of cases, the new directors are not knowledgeable about service designs and instructional practices for LEP students.

- Numerous bilingual and/or ESL programs in the region have implemented variations on the "sheltered" instruction model. Directors or supervisors were not sure what constituted appropriate or sufficient "sheltered" instruction.

- In both urban and rural areas, the region has witnessed an increase in districts adopting the site-based management approach. Usually, the principal of a school supervises the bilingual and/or ESL staff in that school, not always in collaboration with the traditional bilingual/ESL coordinator. Again, the principal is rarely knowledgeable about service designs and instructional practices for LEP students.

- In the past decade, New England schools have witnessed a growing number of LEP enrollments in rural and suburban school districts. After struggling with the initial delivery of educational service to this student population, administrators recognize the need for supervisory activities for the staff delivering instruction to the linguistic minority students.

- As regional districts include special education students in mainstream classes they have attempted to use this model to meet the needs of linguistic minority enrollments. Advocates for LEP students and several administrators have stated a concern about the increasing use of "inclusionary" and compensatory instructional models to meet the needs of low-incidence numbers of linguistic minority enrollments.

1.2 Requests from the Superintendents' Council and State Departments of Education

Another set of requests came from administrators (mostly superintendents) and regional state department officials. They sought a summary of the characteristics or components of equitable educational service for linguistic minority students. As districts reorganize and participate in the current educational reform, a number of administrators are concerned about providing LEP students equitable services and resources while they reorganize their school districts. As regional state departments of education reorganize, coordinators are especially concerned about how to monitor the delivery of service to LEP students in teams which include members who have little or know knowledge about current program designs and instructional practices for linguistic minority students. Consequently, during several meetings with members of the New England Superintendents" Leadership Council and LEP coordinators of four state departments of education, participants requested checklists used by other state departments or school districts to determine if services to LEP students are equitable.

1.3 Series of Regional Workshops

MRC staff members were reluctant to provide such checklists because they questioned the pedagogical value of such a supervisory approach. However, the staff felt they could develop the administrators' knowledge about current instructional practices for LEP students through a series of workshops designed to develop checklists. Thus, the basic content of the workshops centered around legal requirements; current program, assessment and instructional practices; and, current second language acquisition theories. Also, it was decided, administrators could learn about the current practice of combining supervision with staff development (as opposed to using the supervisory process as a teacher performance evaluation tool), notably the model based on Carl D. Glickman's research and writings.

Hopefully, all this "content" would be reflected in the checklists the participants developed and the directions developed on how to use the checklists.

Consequently, starting with bilingual/ESL program directors in Massachusetts, a workshop series was planned and implemented. The focus was to assist directors in supervising bilingual and ESL teachers who were implementing "integrated instruction" in their classrooms. State department coordinators participated in the series and assisted the directors in focusing on equity of instruction in bilingual and ESL classrooms. Both the district directors and state department personnel collaborated to developed checklists or scales which assisted them in supervising or monitoring programs.

The original series has been replicated in other states in New England but with a different focus. For example, administrators from low-incidence districts were usually interested in supervising ESL and/or mainstream teachers who were providing services through pull-out programs or through "inclusion" programs. Again, state department personnel participated in the workshops.

The workshop facilitator worked with the state coordinators at various points during the workshop series in developing an "equity of service" checklist which was shared with all participants and members of the New England Superintendents' Leadership Council.

In each series, one meeting was devoted to three focus groups. Each group read a book or set of articles about some aspect of developmental supervision before attending the group meeting. The meeting focused on developing a summary and a short presentation about the materials. Then, each group presented to the other two groups during the rest of the workshop day.

Literature on current practices was provided all participants. However, rather than just distribute this material as handouts and hope people would have time to read them, participants were provided an opportunity to study selected articles during Jigsaw activities during each workshop meeting.

Participants received Continuing Education Units (CEUs) or contact-hour certificates for their professional-development portfolios.

1.4 Contents of this Document

This document includes the checklists developed in the different workshop series. It also includes a generalized set of instructions on how to implement the checklists as a supervisory-staff development tool. Since each supervisor's checklist was to be used in collaboration with teachers, a teacher's version was also developed.

The equity of service checklist developed in collaboration with the state department participants is also included.

Finally, workshop outlines, selected handouts and a bibliography are included in case the reader is interested in replicating or adapting the training activity.

2. RECOMMENDED STRATEGIES FOR USING THE OBSERVATION CHECKLISTS

RECOMMENDED STRATEGIES FOR IMPLEMENTING THE *OBSERVATION CHECKLISTS*

I would recommend that supervisors/directors using the self-check and Supervisory Check Lists in their programs keep four principles in mind:

(1) the supervisory process appears to work more smoothly if it is integrated with staff-development needs (Glickman, 1990; Gordon, 1990)

(2) the supervisor needs to assume a "coaching" relationship with the teacher (or foster coaching relationships as one of the staff-development methods used)(Costa, Garmeston & Lambert, 1988)

(3) self-check and supervisory checklists should be part of a reflective process (Killion & Harrison, 1992)

(4) decisions about what is taught, how it is taught and how it is assessed needs to be a shared decision if a school district is serious about teacher job satisfaction (Kwiat, 1989; Schneider, 1984)

SOME SUGGESTIONS

1. At a staff meeting, introduce the aims of the *Checklist* activities and your expectations about the use by teachers of both the *Checklist* and X number of practices listed in the *Checklist*.

    1.1 Try to include any principals and administrators who are impacted by this attempt to improve the classroom practices of services provided LEP students.

    1.2 Ask the superintendent of your district to attend the meeting to discuss the implementation and use of this supervisory approach. At the least, the superintendent should write a memo to all affected personnel stating that the district believes strongly in this endeavor. Verbal and written commitment by the school district administration is imperative to the success of this activity.

    1.3 Put in writing your expectations and plans for implementing the *Checklist* activities.

1.4 Your expectations and your plans might be organized around Glickman's "conceptual level" supervisory-staff development model:

1.4.1 Teachers with a *low-conceptual control* of the content of the classroom practices listed on the *Checklist* would be provided more directed activities. That is, you would pick out X number of practices to be implemented during the school year, and schedule training and technical assistance activities based on those practices. Your supervisory visits would be designed to actually observe the target teachers using the practices at mutually agreeable dates and over a period of time that is you would observe each target practice being used more than once. You would provide support and make recommendations during each visit.

1.4.2 Teachers with a *medium-conceptual control* of the classroom practices listed on the *Checklist* would participate in collaborative activities. That is, this teacher would be supported in a more problem-solving manner concerning practices they have used and not returned to or feel uncomfortable with using. Training would be provided about practices not yet in use.

These practices would be chosen in collaboration between the teachers and the supervisor. Your supervisory visits would be designed to observe the target teachers using the practices being refined and the new practices at mutually agreeable dates and over a period of time. You would observe each target practice being used at least once. You would provide support and make recommendations during each visit.

1.4.3 Teachers with a *high-conceptual control* of classroom practices listed on the *Checklist* would participate in non-directive activities. You would meet with the teachers periodically to observe their using selected practices, to listen to their observations about the effectiveness of the practices and what new things they have leaned about the practices in self-learning activities, and to encourage these teachers to provide training and coaching sessions to the low-conceptual and medium conceptual teachers.

2. At the initial staff meeting, to cut down on teacher anxiety, a "jigsaw" reading or "expert groups" activity would be implemented so that the teachers would begin to experience the activities they are expected to use in their classrooms.

3. Teachers would be provided a copy of the check list and asked to review it as a self-check activity, checking off those practices they are currently using and those they will need support and/or training to implement in the future.

    3.1 Use a brainstorming activity to determine the practices the teachers would like to emphasize this school year.

    3.2 Provide options for developing knowledge and skill in using the practices chosen for this school year - such as workshops, self-learning, study groups, or coaching.

4. Always provide a one-on-one pre-observation conference, or a conference with a team of teachers working together on perfecting their control of a practice.

    Include the school principal in such a conference, if possible.

5. Always provide a post-observation review with specific feedback about what was noteworthy in the sample lesson and specific suggestions for making it stronger.

6. A second observation targeting this instructional practice will indicate if improvement has been made.

7. Document all observations and suggestions, even the non-directive activities with the high-conceptual control teachers.

8. Use in conjunction with the generic supervisory checklist or activities provided or required by the school district.

9. Try to view the integration of supervision and staff development as a long-term activity, and develop a time-line (for the current school year and the years to come) for implementation. Try to keep in mind that instructional practices take years of use and refinement before a teacher has synthesized them into their teaching style.

10. If workshops or consultation is provided by outside experts, you must attend the training and consultation sessions. Your focus will be to assist the consultant and participants in making the connections between the content of the activity and the use of the checklist with the district's goals and outcomes for all students and the specific goals of the services for the target student population.

11. Ask the teachers to periodically review the *Checklist* at future staff meetings. Also, encourage them to discuss their problems in implementing the various practices and to participate in problem-solving brainstorming as a way to support the teachers having the problem(s). They should also be encouraged to report on their success in the classroom with the practices, including sharing student writing samples or sustained effort activities as examples of successful implementation of a practice. The teachers might keep portfolios of personal or focus-group readings, notes and written reflections as documentation of implementation of instructional practices.

12. Finally, no supervisory checklist is an end in itself. The lists provided here are an attempt to provide you with a framework for combining supervision with staff development in a field about which you might not be knowledgeable.

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Developed by Bob Parker to accompany the *Integrated Instruction Check List-Director's Version 1991-1992*
New England Multifunctional Resource Center
at Brown University

3. OBSERVING INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - DIRECTOR'S VERSION

	Practice Descriptors	uses consistently when appropriate to content	should use more often	recommendations for support and training
1.	**The integrated-instruction *teacher manages instruction* with a variety of appropriate management features. A majority, if not all, of the following would be used.**			
1.1	articulated performance outcomes/frameworks			
1.2	integrated instructional units which articulate the integrated content			
1.3	sequenced implementation procedures/frameworks			
1.4 1.4.1 1.4.2 1.4.3 1.4.4 1.4.5 1.4.6	differentiated learning class-group cooperative groups pairs/dyads tutoring groups individualized workshops			
1.5	learning and thematic centers			
1.6	posted performance and product outcomes			
1.7	integrative assessment and portfolios			
1.8	wide variety of print + non-print resources			
1.9	computer assisted learning			
1.10	consistent review and reentry with spiral learning			
1.11	daily silent reading			
1.12	daily reflective writing in logs, journals or summaries			
1.13	sustained-effort projects			
1.14	teacher-assistant or paraprofessional assisting students to meet performance outcomes			

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - DIRECTOR'S VERSION

2. **The integrated-instruction *teacher implements numerous integrative practices* in the classroom so that a range of learning style, background schema, language skill, and content needs are met.**

2.1	continuously demonstrates how to complete and participate in learning activities			
2.2	facilitates task groups and individuals*			
2.3	reads to students daily			
2.4	uses interactive reading groups			
2.5	participates in learning experiences			
2.6	shows enthusiasm for student's/students' work			
2.7	describes and exemplifies learning and product outcomes			
2.8	listens intently and gives appropriate feedback			
2.9	ensures safety during hands-on and content-specific activities			
2.10	uses graphic organizers or scaffolds			
2.11	uses contextualized activities			
2.12	provides partially completed activities			
2.13	models reading and writing			
2.14	co-teaches with students			
2.15	assists students in generating their own learning materials			
2.16	emphasizes communication instead of drill			
2.17	uses content which reflects American diversity of race, culture, ethnicity and language			

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - DIRECTOR'S VERSION

3. In the Integrated Classroom, *students act in specific ways*. An observer would see most of the following at one time or another in such a classroom. They...

3.1 use more than one learning style			
3.2 use a wide variety of learning resources: print, non-print, centers			
3.3 work in cooperative learning groups as well as individually*			
3.4 make task-oriented noise and movement			
3.5 conference with other students, teacher or aide			
3.6 use graphic organizers to summarize, gather information, develop writing assignment, or prepare for tests			
3.7 group and regroup			
3.8 learn in formal and informal ways*			
3.9 generate learning materials in groups and individually			
3.10 tutor and assist peers			
3.11 relate learning content to other subjects and personal experiences			
3.12 respect divergent views, and diversity of culture, race, ethnicity and language			
3.13 continuously summarize content and learning process			
3.14 tell how they successfully prepared for a test, or completed a sustained-effort project (metacognition)			
3.15 illustrate papers + projects			
3.16 make books, albums, videos			

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - DIRECTOR'S VERSION

3.17 focus on meaning and negotiate meaning in learning groups			
3.18 use oral expression skills in formal presentations*			

4. The *physical environment* of the integrative classroom is rich with learning resources and samples of student performance. The classroom is characterized by a majority, if not all, of the following descriptions...

4.1 classroom is arranged around learning resources and areas not with rows of desks facing the teacher's desk			
4.1 wall displays of student projects and writing			
4.2 learning resources which reflect cultural, ethnic, racial and language diversity			
4.3 developmentally appropriate materials (i.e., they reflect the psycho-social experiences and cognitive development of students)			
4.4 learning and thematic centers			
4.5 wall charts for assignment and process steps, and project/performance outcomes			
4.6 experience charts			
4.7 many trade and text books written at different levels, and in both English and the students' home language			
4.8 numerous research resources [both print + non-print]			
4.9 manipulatives, hands-on and demonstration resources			
4.10 audio-video resources			
4.11 computers and printers			

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - DIRECTOR'S VERSION

4.12	background-information resources for students' with limited schooling in their home language			
4.13	sufficient subject-specific resources for social studies, math and science			
4.14	visuals and realia for ESL			

developed for Massachusetts Bilingual Program Directors by Bob Parker,
New England Multifunctional Resource Center at Brown University
Pilot Version - School Year 1991-1992

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - DIRECTOR'S VERSION

SUB-DESCRIPTORS FOR ITEMS WITH ASTERISK

2.2 Teacher facilitates task groups and individuals by ...
- 2.2.1 conferencing
- 2.2.2 assisting students in making connections and focusing
- 2.2.3 moving from task group to task group to consult
- 2.2.4 modeling and demonstrating how to complete learning tasks and use learning resources
- 2.2.5 modeling and encouraging metacognition during group and individualized conferencing
- 2.2.6 warning students of and discusses difficult tasks
- 2.2.7 demonstrating problem solving and task analysis steps

3.3 Students work in cooperative groups...
- 3.3.1 critiqueing pairs (dyads)
- 3.3.2 collecting and observing data
- 3.3.3 conducting interviews
- 3.3.4 tutoring and conferencing
- 3.3.5 completing tasks analyses
- 3.3.6 using overheads and videos
- 3.3.7 working in listening clusters/read-a-long groups
- 3.3.8 reading to each other/interactive reading
- 3.3.9 completing "jig saw" assignments
- 3.3.10 participating in "expert group" activities
- 3.3.11 revising and editing

3.8 Students learn in formal and informal ways by...
- 3.8.1 participating in group and individualized learning tasks
- 3.8.2 working on reflective writing
- 3.8.3 silently reading
- 3.8.3 reviewing and studying for quiz/test with partner

3.18 Each student uses oral expression skills in formal presentations. He/she
- 3.18.1 gives verbal presentations based on research project
- 3.18.2 demonstrates how to make something or a science experiment
- 3.18.3 recites memorized poems
- 3.18.4 reads stories, essays and poems with appropriate inflection
- 3.18.5 summarizes in own words
- 3.18.6 tells an anecdote in own words
- 3.18.7 participates in large-group shared composition activity
- 3.18.8 reads own expressive writing samples
- 3.18.9 retells process and procedures of learning experiences and demonstrations
- 3.18.10 gives short memorized speech

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - TEACHER VERSION

Descriptions for the Numbers

1 = I use this often when appropriate to the content or students' needs.

2 = I use this periodically or occasionally.

3 = I could use coaching or assistance in implementing this practice in my classroom.

4 = I want to know more about this classroom practice.

Practice Descriptors **Scale Numbers**

1. The integrated-instruction *teacher manages instruction* with a variety of appropriate management features. A majority, if not all, of the following would be used.

1.1	articulated performance outcomes	1	2	3	4
1.2	integrated instructional units which articulate the integrated content	1	2	3	4
1.3	sequenced implementation procedures	1	2	3	4
1.4	differentiated learning				
	1.4.1 class-group	1	2	3	4
	1.4.2 cooperative groups	1	2	3	4
	1.4.3 pairs/dyads	1	2	3	4
	1.4.4 tutoring groups	1	2	3	4
	1.4.5 individualized	1	2	3	4
	1.4.6 workshops	1	2	3	4
1.5	learning and thematic centers	1	2	3	4
1.6	posted performance and product outcomes	1	2	3	4
1.7	integrative assessment and portfolios	1	2	3	4
1.8	wide variety of print + non-print resources	1	2	3	4
1.9	computer assisted learning	1	2	3	4
1.10	consistent review and reentry with spiral learning	1	2	3	4
1.11	daily silent reading	1	2	3	4
1.12	daily reflective writing in logs, journals or summaries	1	2	3	4
1.13	sustained-effort projects	1	2	3	4
1.14	teacher-assistant or paraprofessional assisting students to meet performance outcomes	1	2	3	4

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - TEACHER VERSION

2. The integrated-instruction *teacher implements numerous integrative practices* in the classroom so that a range of learning style, background schema, language skill, and content needs are met.

2.1	continuously demonstrates how to complete and participate in learning activities	1	2	3	4
2.2	facilitates task groups and individuals*	1	2	3	4
2.3	reads to students daily	1	2	3	4
2.4	uses interactive reading groups	1	2	3	4
2.5	participates in learning experiences	1	2	3	4
2.6	shows enthusiasm for each student's work	1	2	3	4
2.7	describes and exemplifies learning and product outcomes	1	2	3	4
2.8	listens intently and gives appropriate feedback	1	2	3	4
2.9	ensures safety during hands-on and content-specific activities	1	2	3	4
2.10	uses graphic organizers or scaffolds	1	2	3	4
2.11	uses contextualized activities	1	2	3	4
2.12	provides partially completed activities	1	2	3	4
2.13	models reading and writing	1	2	3	4
2.14	co-teaches with students	1	2	3	4
2.15	assists students in generating their own learning materials	1	2	3	4
2.16	emphasizes communication instead of drill	1	2	3	4
2.17	uses content which reflects American diversity of race, culture, ethnicity and language	1	2	3	4

3. In the Integrated Classroom, *students act in specific ways.* An observer would see most of the following at one time or another in such a classroom. They...

3.1	use more than one learning style	1	2	3	4
3.2	use a wide variety of learning resources: print, non-print, centers	1	2	3	4
3.3	work in cooperative learning groups as well as individually*	1	2	3	4
3.4	make task-oriented noise and movement	1	2	3	4
3.5	conference with other students, teacher or aide	1	2	3	4

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - TEACHER VERSION

3.6	use semantic organizers to summarize, gather information, develop writing assignment, or prepare for tests	1	2	3	4
3.7	group and regroup	1	2	3	4
3.8	learn in formal and informal ways*	1	2	3	4
3.9	generate learning materials in groups and individually	1	2	3	4
3.10	tutor and assist peers	1	2	3	4
3.11	relate learning content to other subjects and personal experiences	1	2	3	4
3.12	respect divergent views, and diversity of culture, race, ethnicity and language	1	2	3	4
3.13	continuously summarize content and learning process	1	2	3	4
3.14	tell how they successfully prepared for a test, or completed a sustained-effort project (uses metacognition)	1	2	3	4
3.15	illustrate papers + projects	1	2	3	4
3.16	make books, albums, videos	1	2	3	4
3.17	focus on meaning and negotiate meaning in learning groups	1	2	3	4
3.18	use oral expression skills in formal presentations*	1	2	3	4

4. The *physical environment* of the integrative classroom is rich with learning resources and samples of student performance. The classroom is characterized by a majority, if not all, of the following descriptions...

4.1	classroom is arranged around learning resources and areas not with rows of desks facing the teacher's desk	1	2	3	4
4.1	wall displays of student projects and writing	1	2	3	4
4.2	learning resources which reflect cultural, ethnic, racial and language diversity	1	2	3	4
4.3	developmentally appropriate materials (i.e., they reflect the psycho-social experiences and cognitive development of students)	1	2	3	4
4.4	learning and thematic centers	1	2	3	4
4.5	wall charts for assignment and process steps, and project/performance outcomes	1	2	3	4

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - TEACHER VERSION

4.6	experience charts	1	2	3	4
4.7	many trade and text books written at different levels, and in both English and the students' home language	1	2	3	4
4.8	numerous research resources [both print + non-print]	1	2	3	4
4.9	manipulatives, hands-on and demonstration resources	1	2	3	4
4.10	audio-video resources	1	2	3	4
4.11	computers and printers	1	2	3	4
4.12	background-information resources for students' with limited schooling in their home language	1	2	3	4
4.13	sufficient subject-specific resources for social studies, math and science	1	2	3	4
4.14	visuals and realia for ESL	1	2	3	4

developed for Massachusetts Bilingual Program Directors by Bob Parker,
New England Multifunctional Resource Center at Brown University
Pilot Version - School Year 1991-1992

INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION CHECKLIST - TEACHER VERSION

SUB-DESCRIPTORS FOR ITEMS WITH ASTERISK

2.2 Teacher facilitates task groups and individuals by ...
  - 2.2.1 conferencing
  - 2.2.2 assisting students in making connections and focusing
  - 2.2.3 moving from task group to task group to consult
  - 2.2.4 modeling and demonstrating how to complete learning tasks and use learning resources
  - 2.2.5 modeling and encouraging metacognition during group and individualized conferencing
  - 2.2.6 warning students of and discusses difficult tasks
  - 2.2.7 demonstrating problem solving and task analysis steps

3.3 Students work in cooperative groups...
  - 3.3.1 critiqueing pairs (dyads)
  - 3.3.2 collecting and observing data
  - 3.3.3 conducting interviews
  - 3.3.4 tutoring and conferencing
  - 3.3.5 completing tasks analyses
  - 3.3.6 using overheads and videos
  - 3.3.7 working in listening clusters/read-a-long groups
  - 3.3.8 reading to each other/interactive reading
  - 3.3.9 completing "jig saw" assignments
  - 3.3.10 participating in "expert group" activities
  - 3.3.11 revising and editing

3.8 Students learn in formal and informal ways by...
  - 3.8.1 participating in group and individualized learning tasks
  - 3.8.2 working on reflective writing
  - 3.8.3 silently reading
  - 3.8.3 reviewing and studying for quiz/test with partner

3.18 Each student uses oral expression skills in formal presentations. He/she
  - 3.18.1 gives verbal presentations based on research project
  - 3.18.2 demonstrates how to make something or a science experiment
  - 3.18.3 recites memorized poems
  - 3.18.4 reads stories, essays and poems with appropriate inflection
  - 3.18.5 summarizes in own words
  - 3.18.6 tells an anecdote in own words
  - 3.18.7 participates in large-group shared composition activity
  - 3.18.8 reads own expressive writing samples
  - 3.18.9 retells process and procedures of learning experiences and demonstrations
  - 3.18.10 gives short memorized speech

4. OBSERVING INSTRUCTION FOR LEP STUDENTS IN THE MAINSTREAM CLASSROOM

MAINSTREAM CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST
DIRECTOR-SUPERVISOR VERSION

Practice Descriptors	uses *consistently* when appropriate to content	should use more often	recommendations for support and training
1. The mainstream teacher **modifies classroom and instructional management practices** to meet the learning needs of limited English proficient students (LEPS).			
1.1 integrates LEPS into cooperative learning groups			
1.2 uses pairs or buddies during practice activities			
1.3 facilitates pairs and co-operative groups*			
1.4 develops language skills through content lessons			
1.5 involves monolingual students in development of learning resources for LEPS			
1.6 asks LEPS to retell experiences & lessons in own words			
1.7 reviews and re-enters content & skill with the spiral approach*			
1.8 provides pre-teaching and /or outlines for lessons and units			
1.9 articulates outcomes or language products & skills to be developed in lessons *			
1.10 uses strategies until LEPS can actually use them for learning			
1.11 uses alternative assessment practices*			
1.12 requires written products such as logs, summaries & outline texts			
1.13 provides a wide range of visual & printed learning resources			

1.14 frequently monitors LEPS performance			
1.15 emphasizes communication not drill			
1.16 uses differentiated learning activities to develop students' learning and cognitive styles			

2. The mainstream teacher uses **appropriate instructional modifications** to assist the limited English proficient student in learning content.

2.1 "sheltered" language forms*			
2.2 special resources & activities to establish basic content			
2.3 "discourse markers" & verbal "scaffolds*			
2.4 wide-range of questioning strategies to developing listening-speaking skills			
2.5 wait-time*			
2.6 remodels responses with appropriate content & language forms			
2.7 avoids over-correcting pronunciation & grammar errors			
2.8 emphasizes comprehension at the beginning & during lessons			
2.9 models how to complete lessons			
2.10 uses gestures to reinforce learning			
2.11 emphasizes global aspects of concepts & shows connections to the specifics in curriculum materials			

3. The mainstream teacher encourages the use of and demonstrates **affective skills**, and models **appropriate attitudes** towards LEPS.

3.1 uses normal tone & volume			
3.2 does not patronize			
3.3 values all LEP student responses; expresses confidence in student's ability to succeed			
3.4 responds with positive body language & demeanor; displays physical & verbal approval & warmth			
3.5 recognizes natural silent period & learning plateaus			
3.6 encourages student to relate learning to his first language & culture			
3.7 respects student's first language & culture			
3.8 models & describes affective skills & attitudes for LEP students*			
3.9 takes a personal interest in lives & goals of LEPS			
3.10 uses personalized rewards			
3.11 voluntarily participates in training about instruction for LEPS			
3.12 voluntarily reads resources about LEPS			
3.13 collaborates with ESL teacher in identifying LEPS learning needs			

SUB-DESCRIPTORS FOR ITEMS WITH ASTERISK

1.3 Facilitates student pairs and cooperative groups by...

- 1.3.1 conferencing
- 1.3.2 assisting students in making connections and focusing
- 1.3.3 moving from task group to task group to consult
- 1.3.4 modeling and demonstrating how to complete learning tasks and use learning resources
- 1.3.5 modeling and encouraging metacognition during group and individualized conferencing
- 1.3.6 warning students of and discusses difficult tasks
- 1.3.7 demonstrating problem solving and task analysis steps

1.7 Uses spiral approach activities.

- 1.7.1 conducts brief reviews of content of previous class meeting based on guided questions, graphic organizer or brainstorming web (This is a factual recall with an emphasis on key words and concepts.)
- 1.7.2 frames the review by reminding the students about the main goal of the activity (e.g., what facts and concepts students will know at the end of the lesson or unit)
- 1.7.3 enters new information (i.e., subordinating details) after the factual review which expands the basics of the reviewed information
- 1.7.4 uses slightly more complex language during each re-entry and addition of subordinating detail
- 1.7.5 expands knowledge proficiency by asking students to compare target information with facts learned in previous lessons, or generalize about the facts
- 1.7.6 ends with a summary of the spiral activity
- 1.7.7 uses numerous review/reentry strategies:
  - consistently asks students to retell content or learning steps in their own words
  - requires students to keep a learning log which is reviewed with individual or a cluster of LEPS in a conference
  - provides outlines of lessons which are used to guide students through review activities
  - consistently gives periodic, unannounced short quizzes
  - provides short pencil-paper review activities in various practice modes such as matching, fill-in or completion; provides immediate feedback so that students can "correct" their papers
  - provides sessions wherein students organize their notes, materials and outlines

1.9 Articulates required outcomes or language products as well as skills developed in lessons by...

1.9.1 recording required outcomes/language products on poster board and continuously referring to them with gestures or a pointer at the beginning of each class devoted to a lesson or unit which requires the creation of the language product

1.9.2 demonstrating how to complete the outcomes/language product assignments

Recommended oral outcomes:

(1) gives verbal presentations with coop group or "buddy" based on research project or interviews

(2) describes & demonstrates how to make something or how to complete a science experiment

(3) recites memorized poems, rhymes, limericks

(4) answers comprehension questions about reading assignments in conference with teacher

(5) summarizes in own words

(6) retells process and procedures of learning experiences and demonstrations

(7) participates in large-group shared composition activity

(8) reads own expressive writing samples

(9) gives short memorized speech

Recommended written outcomes:

(1) writes summaries of lessons or learning experiences (e.g., reading assignments, videos, field trips, demonstrations)

(2) completes partially written essay questions, descriptions, or comparisons

(3) revises, edits or re-writes notes collected during class or during research activities

(4) "fleshes out" teacher-provided outlines with information collected during class and/or in various pictorial and easy-read resources

(5) keeps learning or process logs which are the basis of teacher-student conferences

1.9.3 records on instructional emphasis charts or in a log the specific communicative and operational skills developed in content-area lessons or units

See the attached lists of recommended skills for integration into subject-area lessons.

1.11 When a LEP student may know content but isn't proficient enough in English to participate in traditional pencil and paper assessment activities, the teacher uses alternative assessment practices such as...

- 1.11.1 conferences
- 1.11.2 performance-observation scales or checklists
- 1.11.3 holistic or primary-trait scoring of logs, written summaries, or "fleshed-out" outlines
- 1.11.4 anecdotal reporting
- 1.11.5 curriculum-referenced tests/quizzes
- 1.11.6 oral responses to questions

2.1 The teacher uses such "sheltered language" forms as...

- 2.1.1 speaks clearly and slightly slower
- 2.1.2 uses simpler sentence forms
- 2.1.3 user fewer referents and pronouns
- 2.1.4 uses fewer idioms and slang phrases
- 2.1.5 repeats key words, high-frequency terms or phrases, and names or titles

2.3 The teacher reinforces learning with "discourse markers" and verbal scaffolds.

- 2.3.1 Makes such statements as "This is the main point." and "I am going to tell you the most important part of the (story)(lesson)."
- 2.3.2 Continuously refers to posted lists of key words and concepts by pointing to the target word(s) while saying it(them).
- 2.3.3 Continuously describes, exemplifies, compares & relates to real events.
- 2.3.4 Periodically summaries and re-enters content during lessons.
- 2.3.5 Marks transitions between activities clearly by identifying the activity by name and clearly describing how to complete the activity.
- 2.3.6 Provides partially completed outcomes/products so that LEPS will internalize the process steps necessary for automatically completing such activities.
- 2.3.7 Scaffolds by repeating the student's response but in a more complete manner which includes the correct vocabulary for the content of the response as well as appropriate grammar and pronunciation.

2.5 The teacher uses wait-time by...

- 2.5.1 providing longer time for responses to challenging questions (i.e., comparison, generalizing & explanation questions are especially difficult)
- 2.5.2 posting the major questions to be asked during a lesson or providing them the day before a lesson

3.8 The teacher models and describes affective skills and attitudes for LEP students by...

- 3.8.1 providing visuals or demonstrations of appropriate behavior
- 3.8.2 posting lists of appropriate interpersonal skills
- 3.8.3 providing narratives which describe the positive results of targeted attitudes and affective skills
- 3.8.4 providing problem solving activities based on situations which are resolved with targeted affective skills or attitudes

developed by Bob Parker
New England Multifunctional Resource Center
at Brown University

MAINSTREAM CLASSROOM TEACHER SELF-CHECK CHECKLIST FOR SHELTERED INSTRUCTION FOR LEP STUDENTS

Practice Descriptors	I use *consistently* when appropriate to content.	I should use more often.	I require support and training for this item.
1. I **modify classroom and instructional management practices** to meet the learning needs of limited English proficient students (LEPS) in my classroom by...			
1.1 integrating LEPS into cooperative learning groups			
1.2 using pairs or buddies during practice activities			
1.3 facilitating pairs and co-operative groups*			
1.4 developing language skills through content lessons			
1.5 involving monolingual students in development of learning resources for LEPS			
1.6 asking LEPS to retell experiences & lessons in own words			
1.7 reviewing and re-entering content & skill with the spiral approach*			
1.8 providing pre-teaching and /or outlines for lessons and units			
1.9 articulating outcomes or language products & skills to be developed in lessons *			
1.10 using strategies until LEPS can actually use them for learning			
1.11 using alternative assessment practices*			
1.12 requiring written products such as logs, summaries & outline texts			
1.13 providing a wide range of visual & printed learning resources			

1.14 frequently monitoring LEPS performance			
1.15 emphasizing communication not drill			
1.16 using differentiated learning activities to develop students' learning and cognitive styles			

2. I use **appropriate instructional modifications** to assist the limited English proficient student in learning content with...

2.1 "sheltered" language forms*			
2.2 special resources & activities to establish basic content			
2.3 "discourse markers" & verbal "scaffolds"*			
2.4 a wide-range of questioning strategies to developing listening-speaking skills			
2.5 wait-time*			
2.6 remodeling of responses with appropriate content & language forms			
2.7 avoiding over-correcting pronunciation & grammar errors			
2.8 emphasizing comprehension at the beginning & during lessons			
2.9 modeling how to complete lessons			
2.10 using gestures to reinforce learning			
2.11 emphasizing global aspects of concepts & showing connections to the specifics in curriculum materials			

3. I model and encourage the appropriate use of **interpersonal skills**, and **attitudes** towards LEPS by...			
3.1 using normal tone & volume			
3.2 *not* patronizing			
3.3 valuing all LEP student responses; expressing confidence in student's ability to succeed			
3.4 responding with positive body language & demeanor; displaying physical & verbal approval & warmth			
3.5 recognizing natural silent period & learning plateaus			
3.6 encouraging student to relate learning to his first language & culture			
3.7 respecting student's first language & culture			
3.8 modeling & describing affective skills & attitudes for LEP students*			
3.9 taking a personal interest in lives & goals of LEPS			
3.10 using personalized rewards			
3.11 voluntarily participating in training about instruction for LEPS			
3.12 voluntarily reading resources about LEPS			
3.13 collaborating with ESL teacher in identifying LEPS learning needs			

SUB-DESCRIPTORS FOR ITEMS WITH ASTERISK

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- 1.3.1 conferencing
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- 1.3.7 demonstrating problem solving and task analysis steps

1.7 Use spiral approach activities by...

- 1.7.1 conducting brief reviews of content of previous class meeting based on guided questions, graphic organizer or brainstorming web (This is a factual recall with an emphasis on key words and concepts.)
- 1.7.2 framing the review by reminding the students about the main goal of the activity (e.g., what facts and concepts students will know at the end of the lesson or unit)
- 1.7.3 entering new information (i.e., subordinating details) after the factual review which expands the basics of the reviewed information
- 1.7.4 using slightly more complex language during each re-entry and addition of subordinating detail
- 1.7.5 expanding knowledge proficiency by asking students to compare target information with facts learned in previous lessons, or generalize about the facts
- 1.7.6 ending with a summary of the spiral activity
- 1.7.7 using numerous review/reentry strategies:
  - consistently ask students to retell content or learning steps in their own words
  - require students to keep a learning log which is reviewed with individual or a cluster of LEPS in a conference
  - provide outlines of lessons which are used to guide students through review activities
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Recommended oral outcomes:

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(5) summarizes in own words
(6) retells process and procedures of learning experiences and demonstrations
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1.11.6 oral responses to questions

2.1 I use such "sheltered language" forms as...

2.1.1 speaks clearly and slightly slower
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2.1.3 user fewer referents and pronouns
2.1.4 uses fewer idioms and slang phrases
2.1.5 repeats key words, high-frequency terms or phrases, and names or titles

2.3 I reinforce learning with "discourse markers" and verbal scaffolds by...

2.3.1 Making such statements as "This is the main point." and "I am going to tell you the most important part of the (story)(lesson)."
2.3.2 Continuously referring to posted lists of key words and concepts by pointing to the target word(s) while saying it(them).
2.3.3 Continuously describing, exemplifying, comparing & relating to real events.
2.3.4 Periodically summarizing and re-entering content during lessons.
2.3.5 Marking transitions between activities clearly by identifying the activity by name and clearly describing how to complete the activity.
2.3.6 Providing partially completed outcomes/products so that LEPS will internalize the process steps necessary for automatically completing such activities.
2.3.7 Scaffolding by repeating the student's response but in a more complete manner which includes the correct vocabulary for the content of the response as well as appropriate grammar and pronunciation.

2.5 I use wait-time by...

2.5.1 providing longer time for responses to challenging questions (i.e., comparison, generalizing & explanation questions are especially difficult)
2.5.2 posting the major questions to be asked during a lesson or providing them the day before a lesson

3.8 I model and describe affective skills and attitudes for LEP students by…

3.8.1 providing visuals or demonstrations of appropriate behavior
3.8.2 posting lists of appropriate interpersonal skills
3.8.3 providing narratives which describe the positive results of targeted attitudes and affective skills
3.8.4 providing problem solving activities based on situations which are resolved with targeted affective skills or attitudes

PLANNING FOR CHANGE

PRACTICES I'LL IMPLEMENT NOW	PRACTICES I'LL LEARN MORE ABOUT THIS SCHOOL YEAR

developed by Bob Parker
New England Multifunctional Resource Center at Brown University

5. OBSERVING ESL INSTRUCTION

ESL INSTRUCTION OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

Practice Descriptors	uses consistently when appropriate to content	should use more often	recommendations for support and training
1. The ESL teacher emphasizes **current instructional practices appropriate to the language and learning needs of limited English Proficient students**.			
1.1 articulated performance outcomes			
1.2 articulated lesson & unit learning objectives			
1.3 demonstrations of how to use resources & activities; to complete instructions			
1.4 continuous use of teacher & student summaries			
1.5 advance & graphic organizers			
1.6 wide range of visual & print resources			
1.7 emphasis on all language domains & thinking skills			
1.8 wide range of questions			
1.9 immediate feedback			
1.10 wait-time			
1.11 communication with less drill; student uses language more than teacher			
1.12 contextualized practice; skill through content			
1.13 more than one learning style & teaching style			
1.14 integrated lessons & units			

1.15 articulated teaching sequence or process			
1.16 alternative assessment practices with portfolios			

2. The ESL teacher uses **current ESL strategies and practice activities** appropriate to the students' proficiency levels.* ____________________			

3. The ESL teacher demonstrates appropriate **teacher-student interaction** during the instruction of LEP students.

3.1 encourages students to identify topics for lessons			
3.2 demonstrates a positive response to students' efforts			
3.3 builds & values students' current proficiency level			
3.4 emphasizes communication rather than linguistic perfection			
3.5 uses positive reinforcement by giving non-valuative feedback			
3.6 establishes a pace & rhythm to instruction			
3.7 creates a stress-reduced learning environment			
3.8 humanizes instruction as much as possible			
3.9 respects student's home language & culture			

*

2. Recommended Methods, Teaching Strategies and Learning Activities Appropriate to the Proficiency Levels of ESL Students

2.1 For *Beginner Level Students*

a. the Communicative Competency Method

b. Sheltered Language Units for ESL through Content Instruction

c. Appropriate Instructional Strategies in lessons and units:

(1) presenting lessons with

- (a) Total Physical Response
- (b) Gouin Action Routines
- (c) Advance Organizers
- (d) Description Routine
- (e) Demonstration Routine
- (f) jazz chants/rhymes
- (g) language through music
- (h) make-a-book activities

(2) summarizing-reviewing-reentering content with

- (a) Graphic Organizers
- (b) verbal review/re-entry

(3) practicing and applying content and skill with

- (a) contextualized practice
- (b) art and music activities
- (c) research/information gathering activities
- (d) problem-solving activities
- (e) interactive reading
- (f) read-along
- (g) silent reading
- (h) shared composition
- (i) dictation
- (j) cloze reading
- (k) scenario generation with dialogue
- (l) listening comprehension with micro texts
- (m) sentence extenders

(n) composition extenders
(o) contextualized practice modalities:

- matching - fill ins
- completion - sentence strips
- categorizing/organizing - cloze
- re-arrange sentences and paragraphs to create a whole selection

2.2 For *Intermediate, Advance + Transitional* Level Students

a. Use Appropriate Integrated Methods

(1) Language Experience
(2) Guided Learning/Practice
(3) Interactive Reading
(4) Shared Composition or Modified Writing Process
(5) Directed Reading and Thinking (DRTA)
(6) Problem Posing/Solving
(7) Research/Information Gathering

b. M*odify* or *shelter* methods with appropriate instructional strategies by

(1) presenting lessons with

(a) Advance Organizers
(b) Demonstrations
(c) brainstorming
(d) semantic association (graphic organizers)
(f) scenario generation with dialogue ("create-a-situation")
(g) explanations/descriptions based on Graphic Organizers

(2) summarizing-reviewing-reentering content with

(a) Graphic Organizers
(b) verbal review with thinking-skill questions.
(c) Learning Logs
(d) Dialogue Journals
(e) oral and written summaries

(3) practicing and applying content and skill with

(a) contextualized practice
(b) art and music activities
(c) research/information gathering activities

(d) written reports: book and content area reports
(e) problem-posing/solving activities
(f) interactive reading
(g) silent reading
(h) composition activities: shared and individual
(i) oral cloze
(j) role play
(k) drama activities
(l) newspaper activities
(m) "graffiti"
(n) learning logs/journals
(o) dictation
(p) cloze reading
(q) listening comprehension with micro texts
(r) oral-expression activities

- recite a poem
- tell an anecdote
- orally read written summary
- verbally summarize
- give memorized speech
- describe while demonstrating
- present or "teach" a research topic based on notes and illustrations

(s) transformations
(t) sentence extenders
(u) composition extenders
(v) contextualized practice modalities:

- matching
- fill ins
- sentence combining
- categorizing/organizing
- completion
- sentence strips
- stylistic reduction
- sentence generation with provided words and grammatical chunks
- re-arrange sentences and paragraphs to create a whole selection

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ESL TEACHER SELF-CHECK LIST

At least once a year please complete this Check List to determine *the level of your use* of the components of the Bilingual/ESL Program's instructional framework.

The List should also be used to identify your personal training and technical assistance needs. That is, when the program has staff meetings you should request training or technical assistance about any of the methods, strategies, practices, or resources mentioned on the checklist. The Check List matches the Collaborative Supervision Check List used by the Director of the Bilingual/ESL Program and the principal of your school to supervise your classroom performance.

Rate yourself from 1 to 5 on the following statements or components. The scale of numbers after each feature represent these levels of implementation:

1 = do not use it at this time
2 = plan to use it
3 = periodically use it
4 = often use it
5 = always use it when it is appropriate to the topic or skill(s)

A. The ESL Teacher Uses Integrated Instruction Classroom Practices Appropriately Modified for LEP Students

1. I identify specific objectives and outcomes as well as content and learning-practice activities of lessons and units before instruction begins. 1 2 3 4 5

2. I never assume students know what is expected of them to participate in learning and practice activities;
therefore I....

a. demonstrate how to use a targeted skill 1 2 3 4 5

b. demonstrate how to complete instructions 1 2 3 4 5

c.	demonstrate how to use new learning modalities such as large and small group learning, and individualized learning activities	1	2	3	4	5
d.	demonstrate how to use new resources, especially when first presented	1	2	3	4	5
e.	continuously asks student to summarize process(steps) of activities before and after completed	1	2	3	4	5

3. I present instructions, content (information) and skill(s) actively and clearly by continuously using...

a.	advance organizers and graphic organizers to introduce content or to assist students in recalling what they already know	1	2	3	4	5
b.	review and reentry activities which spiral up so that students' skills and knowledge continuously grow more sophisticated	1	2	3	4	5
c.	graphic organizers as content is presented	1	2	3	4	5
d.	visual + realia prompts	1	2	3	4	5
e.	explanations which identify both the global and specific concepts	1	2	3	4	5
f.	convergent and divergent questions both during the lesson process and for summarizing	1	2	3	4	5
g.	develop concepts and skills through written narrative	1	2	3	4	5

4. I emphasize the use of all the language and thinking domains, not just the use of passive reading and practice activities by emphasizing ...

   a. numerous kinds of questions to involve each student in activities with an emphasis on (1) divergent, (2) value, and (3) personal-experience questions 1 2 3 4 5

   b. use interactive and participatory activities for students reluctant to verbalize, especially low-proficiency students 1 2 3 4 5

   c. use choral, small group, peer-pair and individual responses with beginners 1 2 3 4 5

   d. teach students how to and encourage students to ask questions 1 2 3 4 5

5. I give immediate feedback whenever possible. 1 2 3 4 5

6. I assist students in inducing language features and forms before learning about them as content by...

   a. requiring students use targeted language features and forms in interactive activities before studying them in skill lessons and practice 1 2 3 4 5

   b. using contextualized practice activities 1 2 3 4 5

7.	I use a wide variety of appropriate instructional media and materials.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I use a variety of teaching styles to assist students in developing a variety of learning styles.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I use developmental activities rather than remedial and compensatory-type learning and practice activities.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I support self-learning and learning responsibility of students by guiding students through research-based activities.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I manage instruction with					
a.	integrated units	1	2	3	4	5
b.	collaborative learning	1	2	3	4	5
(1)	peer pairs/dyads	1	2	3	4	5
(2)	small task groups	1	2	3	4	5
c.	individualized activities, especially for more capable students	1	2	3	4	5
d.	instructional emphasis charts for the ESL level(s) taught	1	2	3	4	5
e.	articulated guided or differentiated learning IMPs	1	2	3	4	5
f.	performance portfolios	1	2	3	4	5

B. Methods, Teaching Strategies and Learning Activities Appropriate to the Integrated Approach and Modified for ESL Students

1. For *Beginner Level Students*, I use

a.		the Communicative Competency Method	1	2	3	4	5
b.		Sheltered Language Units for ESL through Content Instruction	1	2	3	4	5
c.		Appropriate Instructional Strategies in lessons and units by					
(1)		presenting lessons with					
	(a)	Total Physical Response	1	2	3	4	5
	(b)	Gouin Action Routines	1	2	3	4	5
	(c)	Advance Organizers	1	2	3	4	5
	(d)	Description Routine	1	2	3	4	5
	(e)	Demonstration Routine	1	2	3	4	5
	(f)	jazz chants/rhymes	1	2	3	4	5
	(g)	language through music	1	2	3	4	5
	(h)	make-a-book activities	1	2	3	4	5
(2)		summarizing-reviewing-reentering content with					
	(a)	Graphic Organizers	1	2	3	4	5
	(b)	verbal review	1	2	3	4	5

(3) practicing and applying content and skill with

(a)	contextualized practice	1	2	3	4	5
(b)	art and music activities	1	2	3	4	5
(c)	research/information gathering activities	1	2	3	4	5
(d)	problem-solving activities	1	2	3	4	5
(e)	interactive reading	1	2	3	4	5
(f)	read-along	1	2	3	4	5
(g)	silent reading	1	2	3	4	5
(h)	shared composition	1	2	3	4	5
(i)	dictation	1	2	3	4	5
(j)	cloze reading	1	2	3	4	5
(k)	scenario generation with dialogue	1	2	3	4	5
(l)	listening comprehension with micro texts	1	2	3	4	5
(m)	sentence extenders	1	2	3	4	5
(n)	composition extenders	1	2	3	4	5

(o) contextualized practice modalities:
[circle those used/check those you plan to use in the future]

- matching
- completion
- categorizing/organizing
- fill ins
- sentence strips
- cloze
- re-arrange sentences and paragraphs to create a whole selection

2. For *Intermediate, Advance + Transitional* Level Students, I...

a. Use Appropriate Integrated Methods

(1)	Language Experience	1	2	3	4	5
(2)	Guided Learning/Practice	1	2	3	4	5
(3)	Interactive Reading	1	2	3	4	5
(4)	Shared Composition or Modified Writing Process	1	2	3	4	5
(5)	Directed Reading and Thinking	1	2	3	4	5
(6)	Problem Posing/Solving	1	2	3	4	5
(7)	Research/Information Gathering	1	2	3	4	5

b. *Modify* or *shelter* methods with appropriate instructional strategies by

(1) presenting lessons with

(a)	Advance Organizers	1	2	3	4	5
(b)	Demonstrations	1	2	3	4	5
(c)	brainstorming	1	2	3	4	5
(d)	semantic association (graphic organizers)	1	2	3	4	5
(f)	scenario generation with dialogue ("create-a-situation")	1	2	3	4	5
(g)	explanations/descriptions based on Graphic Organizers	1	2	3	4	5

(2) summarizing-reviewing-reentering content with

(a)	Graphic Organizers	1	2	3	4	5
(b)	verbal review with thinking skill questions	1	2	3	4	5
(c)	Learning Logs	1	2	3	4	5
(d)	Dialogue Journals	1	2	3	4	5
(e)	oral and written summaries	1	2	3	4	5

(3) practicing and applying content and skill with

(a)	contextualized practice	1	2	3	4	5
(b)	art and music activities	1	2	3	4	5
(c)	research/information gathering activities.	1	2	3	4	5
(d)	written reports: book and content area	1	2	3	4	5
(e)	problem-posing/solving activities	1	2	3	4	5
(f)	interactive reading	1	2	3	4	5
(g)	silent reading	1	2	3	4	5
(h)	composition activities: shared and individual	1	2	3	4	5
(i)	oral cloze	1	2	3	4	5
(j)	role play	1	2	3	4	5
(k)	drama activities	1	2	3	4	5
(l)	newspaper activities	1	2	3	4	5

(m)	"graffiti"	1	2	3	4	5
(n)	learning logs/journals	1	2	3	4	5
(o)	dictation	1	2	3	4	5
(p)	cloze reading	1	2	3	4	5
(q)	listening comprehension with micro texts	1	2	3	4	5

(r) oral-expression activities [circle those used now; check those you will use in the future]

- recite a poem
- tell an anecdote
- orally read written summary
- verbally summarize
- give memorized speech
- describe while demonstrating
- present or "teach" a research topic based on notes and illustrations

(s)	transformations	1	2	3	4	5
(t)	sentence extenders	1	2	3	4	5
(u)	composition extenders	1	2	3	4	5

(v) contextualized practice modalities: [circle those currently used; check those to be used in future]

- matching
- fill ins
- sentence combining
- categorizing/organizing
- completion
- sentence strips
- stylistic reduction
- sentence generation with provided words and grammatical chunks
- re-arrange sentences and paragraphs to create a whole selection

C. Appropriate Student-Teacher Interaction

1. I promote and encourage student participation in learning process which requires flexibility and the ability to develop competencies through any content by

a.	encouraging students to recommend or choose topics for integrated units & lessons	1	2	3	4	5
b.	relying less on textbook series and practice sheets; rather, I guide students in creating their own texts	1	2	3	4	5

2. I project a positive demeanor towards student behavior and efforts by

a.	not over correcting pronunciation & grammar-syntax mistakes	1	2	3	4	5
b.	not devaluing or denigrating native/home language or culture	1	2	3	4	5
c.	discouraging negative racial and ethnic remarks, or stereotyping observations	1	2	3	4	5
d.	when possible, relating content of lessons and units to students' language and cultural background	1	2	3	4	5
e.	using a personalized manner in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
f.	continuously praising and emphasizing positive and productive performance	1	2	3	4	5

3.	I always build and value a student's current level of proficiency, especially with low-proficiency students by						
	a.	always modeling appropriate responses	1	2	3	4	5
	b.	repeating or modeling appropriate response after inappropriate student response	1	2	3	4	5
	c.	smiling and saying encouraging words even when response is continuously inappropriate	1	2	3	4	5
4.	My classroom activities emphasize communication not linguistic perfection.		1	2	3	4	5
5.	I use positive reinforcement by giving non-valuative feedback and responses.		1	2	3	4	5
6.	I use "wait-time" for questions by						
	a.	giving enough response time	1	2	3	4	5
	b.	providing questions before lessons or practice work	1	2	3	4	5
	c.	breaking questions into sub-questions when necessary	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I use a pace and rhythm to classroom activities which keep the students alert and involved.		1	2	3	4	5

8. I create a stress-reduced learning environment by

a. consistency of presentation 1 2 3 4 5

b. allowing students to get used to learning modalities, methods and practice activities before introducing new types 1 2 3 4 5

c. providing continuous comprehension prompts & Sheltered Language strategies 1 2 3 4 5

9. I "humanize" instruction as much as possible by

a. encouraging students to identify content and skill to be learned/practiced 1 2 3 4 5

b. act as a role model 1 2 3 4 5

c. sharing out of class relevant experiences and anecdotes 1 2 3 4 5

d. encouraging students to tell their personal "stories" 1 2 3 4 5

e. using a personalized reward system 1 2 3 4 5

f. encouraging group work after teaching the principles of teamwork & collaboration 1 2 3 4 5

g. encouraging the pairing of monolingual and LEP students 1 2 3 4 5

h. participate in learning and research activities, acting as a "learner" model 1 2 3 4 5

10. I do not chastise students when they use their home language during instruction; instead, I encourage "English-only" periods of classroom time. 1 2 3 4 5

11. I value student success by encouraging students who have successfully completed lessons/ activities to help those who have not. 1 2 3 4 5

6. OBSERVING INSTRUCTION FOR LEP STUDENTS IN THE "INCLUSIONARY" CLASSROOM

INCLUSION CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST
SUPERVISOR'S VERSION

Classroom Practice	uses consistently when appropriate to content	should use more often	recommendation for support and training
1. The teacher **modifies classroom and instructional management practices** to meet the learning needs of all students with...			
1.1 articulated lesson objectives and performance expectations or standards			
1.2 peer pairs or small groups			
1.3 modified assessment practices			
1.4 computer assisted learning			
1.5 teaching assistant			
2. The teacher uses **appropriate instructional practices** so that ELL** students participate in learning activities by...			
2.1 *assuring comprehension* with:			
2.1.1 home language			
2.1.2 visuals/hands-on			
2.1.3 demonstrations			
2.1.4 easy read texts			
2.1.5 peer tutors			
2.1.6 graphic organizers			
2.1.7 lesson outlines			
2.1.8 "sheltered" English			
2.1.9 discourse markers			
2.1.10 wait time			
2.2 *providing opportunities for communication* with:			
2.2.1 teacher-student conferences			
2.2.2 student interviews			
2.2.3 information gathering			

2.2.4	divergent as well as convergent questions			
2.2.5	students relate to experience & home culture			
2.3	using *cooperative or collaborative learning*			
2.4	using *contextualized instruction*			
2.5	*developing student content knowledge and 2nd language skill* with:			
2.5.1	continuous review or re-entry with spiral learning			
2.5.2	"write to read" activities			
2.5.3	learning logs			
2.5.4	sustained-effort projects			
2.5.5	comparison-contrast			
2.5.6	verbal and written summaries			
3.	The teacher encourages the use of and demonstrates **affective skills and attitudes** to make ELL students comfortable in her/his classroom.			
3.1	uses normal tone and volume			
3.2	does not patronize			
3.3	values all ELL student responses; expresses confidence in student's ability to succeed			
3.4	responds with positive body language and demeanor; displays physical & verbal approval & warmth			
3.5	recognizes natural silent period & learning plateaus			
3.6	encourages student to relate learning to his first language & culture			
3.7	respects student's first language & culture			

3.8	models & describes affective skills & attitudes for ELL students*			
3.9	takes a personal interest in lives & goals of ELL students			
3.10	uses personalized rewards			
3.11	voluntarily participates in training about instruction for ELL students			
3.12	voluntarily reads resources about LEP students			
3.13	collaborates with ESL/Bilingual teacher(s) in identifying learning needs of ELL students			

developed by Bob Parker, Education Alliance at Brown Unversity in collaboration with administrators of low-incidence programs for LEP students in Maine, New Hapshire and Vermont

ELL = English Language Learner(s)

INCLUSION CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST
TEACHER'S VERSION

Classroom Practice	I use consistently when appropriate to content.	I should use more often.	I require support and training for this item.
1. **I modify classroom and instructional management practices** to meet the learning needs of all students with…			
1.1 articulated lesson objectives and performance expectations or standards			
1.2 peer pairs or small groups			
1.3 modified assessment practices			
1.4 computer assisted learning			
1.5 teaching assistant			
2. I use **appropriate instructional practices** so that ELL** students participate in learning activities by…			
2.1 *assuring comprehension* with:			
2.1.1 home language			
2.1.2 visuals/hands-on			
2.1.3 demonstrations			
2.1.4 easy read texts			
2.1.5 peer tutors			
2.1.6 graphic organizers			
2.1.7 lesson outlines			
2.1.8 "sheltered" English			
2.1.9 discourse markers			
2.1.10 wait time			
2.2 *providing opportunities for communication* with:			
2.2.1 teacher-student conferences			
2.2.2 student interviews			
2.2.3 information gathering			

2.2.4 divergent as well as convergent questions			
2.2.5 students relate to experience & home culture			
2.3 using *cooperative or collaborative learning*			
2.4 using *contextualized instruction*			
2.5 *developing student content knowledge and 2nd language skill* with:			
2.5.1 continuous review or re-entry with spiral learning			
2.5.2 "write to read" activities			
2.5.3 learning logs			
2.5.4 sustained-effort projects			
2.5.5 comparison-contrast			
2.5.6 verbal and written summaries			
3. I encourage the use of and personally demonstrate **affective skills and attitudes** to make ELL students comfortable in my classroom by...			
3.1 using normal tone and volume			
3.2 not patronizing students			
3.3 valuing all ELL student responses; expressing confidence in student's ability to succeed			
3.4 responding with positive body language and demeanor; displaying physical & verbal approval & warmth			
3.5 recognizing natural silent period & learning plateaus			
3.6 encouraging student to relate learning to his first language & culture			
3.7 respecting student's first language & culture			

3.8	modeling & describing affective skills & attitudes for ELL students			
3.9	taking a personal interest in lives & goals of ELL students			
3.10	using personalized rewards			
3.11	voluntarily participating in training about instruction for ELL students			
3.12	voluntarily reading resources about LEP students			
3.13	collaborating with ESL/Bilingual teacher(s) in identifying learning needs of ELL students			

developed by Bob Parker, Education Alliance at Brown University in collaboration with administrators of low-incidence programs for LEP students in Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Vermont

ELL = English Language Learner(s)

7. MONITORING EQUITABLE SERVICES FOR LEP STUDENTS

MONITORING EQUITABLE SERVICES FOR LEP STUDENTS

based on Federal Requirements

PROGRAM REQUIREMENTS	LOOK FOR...
1. District has procedures to identifying Non-English Language Background/Limited English Proficient enrollments.	1.1 use of a Home Language Survey for all new enrollees; administered by a professional 1.2 training for intake staff 1.3 use of a classroom survey to identify previously unserved LEP students; formal review of records to identify unserved LEP students 1.4 articulation of steps and criteria used for identification of LEP students
2. District conducts English proficiency assessment to determine 2.1 the need for special alternative instructional services 2.2 appropriate instructional placement 2.3 classification of English proficiency.	2.1 use of a commercially available English proficiency instrument or adaptation of a non-commercial, reliable instrument 2.2 development of multiple criteria or descriptors for proficiency levels (proficiency classification) 2.3 articulation of criteria for instructional placement 2.4 recommended option: identification and implementation of strategies for determining proficiency in the first language and diagnosing content knowledge/skill

3. District ensures placement in appropriate and sufficient services.

That is, if the student requires service, he/she is placed in direct, appropriate and sufficient services which are designed specifically for the student's proficiency-level needs. Instruction is based on current practices. Placement in and exiting from service are based on multiple criteria. The district guarantees necessary and appropriate instructional staff as well as appropriate and sufficient materials and resources. The district evaluates success of service and modifies it when needed.

3.1 an Instructional Plan which includes:
- schedules for service delivery
- identification of who provides service
- an assessment plan which indicates proficiency development & reclasification, performance grading, promotion within the program, & exit criteria
- description of curren ESL teaching practices (e.g., sheltered-content instruction)
- indication of appropriate & sufficient instructional materials
- a description of what is taught (i.e., scope & sequence which parallels mainstream curriculum but emphasizes content appropriate to 2nd language development for academic purposes)
- description of adjunc/ancillary services
- description of post-service monitoring procedures & criteria
- description of services for students who do not meet the exit criteria or fall behind after exiting the program

3.2 a training & support plan for all relevant staff, and a description of how it s implemented

3.3 documentation that service is provided by certified/ credentialed staff

3.4 identification of how LEP-service staff are supervised

3.5 line item on budget for LEP services

3.6 policies on racism/ethnocentricism

3.7 appropriate adjustmen & guidance counseling

3.8 integration for academics

4. District ensures social and instructional integration with same-age English peers; equity of service; *access* to equal opportunity.	4.1 description of how LEP students access programs & services available to English-speaking peers (i.e., how they access equal opportunity): ●sheltered instruction ●gifted & talented ●modified assessment ●SPED when needed ●challenging content with support ●computer literacy ●early childhood ●ancillary tutoring ●home-language support ●family literacy, math, science ●extra-curricula activities, clubs, etc. ●special developmental program for semi/non-literate students in middle/secondary schools 4.2 policies for equitable grading, promotion, grade or course placement, and retention which are appropriate for students with limited English skills ●*no* automatic placement in lower tracks ●high percent of LEPs in college-bound courses ●high percent of LEPs in upper-level math & science classes ●*no* automatic placement in non-academic courses 4.3 identification of how LEP students are socially integrated with their English, same-age peers 4.4 access to health services for meeting Board of Health regulations 4.5 proficiency re-classification process 4.6 coordination-reporting system to parents, relevant staff 4.7 proactive practices for raising LEP attendance and lowering LEP dropouts 4.8 access to home-language support & guidance 4.9 positive public relations by school board

5. District can provide documentation of service, the program's successful effect on student performance, and modifications to make program successful. That is, the burden of proof is upon the part of the district.	5.1 a Program or Service Guide 5.2 a record keeping plan 5.3 a system-wide or school-based team to implement program/service evaluation plan (i.e., a formative evaluation process) 5.4 articulated criteria for performance success and exiting

developed by Bob Parker, Resource Specialist/Education Alliance at Brown University in collaboration with members of the New England Superintendents' Leadership Council and representatives of the Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Vermont State Departments of Education

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APPENDIX A: SELECTED TRAINING AGENDAS

NEW ENGLAND MULTIFUNCTIONAL RESOURCE CENTER
FOR
LANGUAGE AND CULTURE IN EDUCATION

A Program of The Education Alliance at Brown University

Dr. Adeline Becker, Executive Director
Charlene Heintz, Director, MRC

A Consortium of:

Brown University
University of Hartford
University of Massachusetts
University of Southern Maine

AGENDA #1 - MAY MEETING
BILINGUAL/ESL DIRECTORS-DISTRICT ADMINISTRATORS

1. Legislative Update

2. Current Administrators' Needs: Supervision and program monitoring during state and district cutbacks

3. 2 Recommendations:

   3.1 Combining Supervision and Staff Development
   3.2 Integrated Instruction Approach (as basis of our workshops and one of the contents of our training activities as well as the focus of the development of a supervisory checklist)

4. Tentative Plans: Supervisory Checklists, Administrator Training, Pilot Checklists, Focus Groups

5. Review Current Instructional Practice Charts to establish a theoretical/philosophical framework for our activities

Lunch

6. Jigsaw Reading-Collaborative Task Groups Activity:

   6.1 Developmental Supervision: An Exploratory Study of a Promising Model (Stephen P. Gordon)

   Reconvene to report on Discussion Questions and complete the Sentence Strip Activity

7. Summarize and Make Connections

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NEW ENGLAND MULTIFUNCTIONAL RESOURCE CENTER
FOR
LANGUAGE AND CULTURE IN EDUCATION

A Program of The Education Alliance at Brown University

Dr. Adeline Becker, Executive Director
Charlene Heintz, Director, MRC

A Consortium of:

Brown University
University of Hartford
University of Massachusetts
University of Southern Maine

AGENDA #2 - OCTOBER MEETING
BILINGUAL/ESL PROGRAM DIRECTORS-DISTRICT ADMINISTRATORS

1. Review needs identified in meeting #1

2. How I put the *Checklist* together - and some assumptions I made during the *Checklist* development.

3. Review of *Checklist* Components

4. Suggestions for introducing the *Checklist* to your staff

5. Suggestions for using the Checklist as a basis for staff development

6. Review Plans for Training Directors and Administrators in both how to use the *Checklist* and learn about the teaching practices included in the *Checklist* [Establish Training/Meeting Goals for this School Year]

7. Piloting Activities - request for volunteers to pilot the *Checklist*

8. Jigsaw-Expert Groups Activity:

    8.1 *How Adults Learn*
    8.2 *Brain Functions and How Adults Learn Have Implications for Training*
    8.3 Current Practices and Options for Staff Development

9. Making Connections/Closure

Bob Parker
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AGENDA #3 - DECEMBER MEETING
BILINGUAL/ESL DIRECTORS-DISTRICT ADMINISTRATORS

1. Legislative Update

2. Revisions/Editing Checklist

3. Overview of Programmatic Issues

    3.1 Checklist Descriptors - Rubrics - Primary Traits
    3.2 Clarify Some Supervisory Terms
    3.3 Two Versions of Checklist: Supervisor & Teacher
    3.4 Review Suggestions for On-Site Implementation based on current pilot activities

4. Jigsaw Reading-Collaborative Task Groups Activity:

    4.1 What is Integrated Instruction ?

    Reconvene to report on Discussion Questions and complete the Cloze Activity

Lunch

    4.2 What is Integrated in an Integrated Instruction Program?

    Reconvene to report on Case Study

5. Use Checklist to identify what classroom practices will be emphasized in activities during our third meeting in January.

6. Summarize and Make Connections

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AGENDA #4 - JANUARY MEETING
BILINGUAL/ESL DIRECTORS - DISTRICT ADMINISTRATORS

1. Legislative Update

2. Wordsplash: Review "integrative instruction" activity from December meeting

3. Reports from Pilot Sites

4. Collaborative Task Groups Activities:

    4.1 Expert Groups Activity: Selected Practices Which Are Integrated In The *Checklist*

    Reconvene to summarize each group's findings

Lunch

    4.2 Jigsaw Reading Activity -

    What are Integrated Units and How Can They Relate to Current Curriculum Goals? [Managing Integrated Instruction]

    Reconvene to define management strategies for Integrated Instruction and How to supervise management strategies

5. Planning for Next Meeting: Final Reports from Pilots and final revising/editing of *Checklist(s)*

6. Connections/Closure

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AGENDA #5 - MARCH MEETING
BILINGUAL/ESL DIRECTORS - DISTRICT ADMINISTRATORS
at the Massachusetts Association of Bilingual Educators Conference

1. Legislative Update

2. Final Reports from Pilot Sites

3. Final revising/editing of *Checklist(s)*

4. Identify other needs or expansion activities (i.e., development and training activities which have come out of this year's meetings - for example, the directors/administrators would meet to develop an Integrated Instruction Handbook to be used in their Developmental Supervision activities)

5. Assign/volunteer focus group participants:

   Topics/Readings:

   McGreal, T.L. "Evaluation for Enhancing Instruction: Linking Teacher Evaluation and Staff Development."

   Zimper, N.L. and J.E. Grossman. (1992) "Collegial Support by Teacher Mentors and Peer Consultant."

   Glatthorn, A.A. (1984) *Differentiated Supervision.*

   [Each member of a focus group reads the groups's article before attending the next meeting.]

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AGENDA #6 - APRIL MEETING
BILINGUAL/ESL DIRECTORS - DISTRICT ADMINISTRATORS

1. Distribute final edition of Checklist(s)

2. "Wordsplash" brainstorming activity: review current supervisory nomenclature

3. Focus groups:

    3.1 Silent Review
    3.2 Discussion Questions/Issues
    3.3 Summary Report (and recommendations)
    3.4 Whole Group plans how to integrate ideas/suggestions into the use of the Supervisor's *Integrated Instruction Checklist*

Focus group 1:
McGreal, T.L. "Evaluation for Enhancing Instruction: Linking Teacher Evaluation and Staff Development." in Teacher Evaluation: Six Prescriptions for Success. S. Stanley and W.J. Popham (Eds.) Alexander, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Focus Group 2:
Zimper, N.L. and J.E. Grossman. (1992) "Collegial Support by Teacher Mentors and Peer Consultant." in *Supervision in Transition: The 1992 ASCD Yearbook*. C.D. Glickman (Ed.). Alexander, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Focus Group 3:
Glatthorn, A.A. (1984) Chapters 1 and 3 in *Differentiated Supervision*. Alexander, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

6. Plans for developing an Integrated Instruction Handbook to accompany *Checklist*

7. Connections/Closure

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APPENDIX B: PRE-POST ASSESSMENT OF PARTICIPANTS

The following assessment scale was used with program directors, principals and supervisors before and after workshop series about Integrated Instruction. The scale was used with the participants in the initial series for administrators in Massachusetts during the '91-92 school year. The scale was used with administrators who participated in the series when it was repeated in 1992-1993 and 1993-1994 in other states in the New England region.

PARTICIPANT KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL SCALE

Please rate your current knowledge and skill levels for the following topics.

1. My knowledge of the background theory and research about the Integrated Instruction can be described as at the...

introductory level	developmental level	synthesis and application level	refinement level

2. My knowledge about the instructional practices which are "integrated" to create this version Integrated Instruction can be described as at the ...

introductory level	developmental level	synthesis and application level	refinement level

3. My knowledge of the program components and skill at implementing the program components which are "integrated" in the programmatic aspects of the Integrated Instruction can be rated as...

introductory level	developmental level	synthesis and application level	refinement level

4. My experience at supervising and guiding teachers who are implementing Integrated Instruction in their classrooms can be described as at the...

introductory level	developmental level	synthesis and application level	refinement level

5. My knowledge of and skill at implementing current supervisory principles and mechanisms can be described as at the...

introductory level	developmental level	synthesis and application level	refinement level

6. My knowledge of and skill at implementing current staff development principles and mechanisms can be described as at the...

introductory level	developmental level	synthesis and application level	refinement level

7. My knowledge of current strategies for and skill at integrating supervision and staff development activities can be described as at the...

introductory level	developmental level	synthesis and application level	refinement level

8. Designate how you feel about the following statements:

8.1 Teachers who provide instructional services for LEP students should use only current instructional practices from the mainstream.

disagree completely	disagree somewhat	agree somewhat	agree completely

8.2 Second language students must have a high level of language skills before they can learn content area topics with a second language.

disagree completely	disagree somewhat	agree somewhat	agree completely

8.3 Language and learning skills need to be drilled before they can be applied in authentic communicative situations in the classroom.

disagree completely	disagree somewhat	agree somewhat	agree completely

8.4 Since all language-culture groups basically think the same way, this similarity should be the basis for instructional management in the classroom.

disagree completely	disagree somewhat	agree somewhat	agree completely

8.5 Students are motivated by the high expectations their parents and their teachers have for them.

disagree completely	disagree somewhat	agree somewhat	agree completely

8.6 Knowledge and skill must be developed through analysis of rules before they can be applied to content area learning and to life outside of school.

disagree completely	disagree somewhat	agree somewhat	agree completely

8.7 Teaching adults is the same as teaching children, except the trainer must use resources and materials relevant to the learners psycho-social age.

disagree completely	disagree somewhat	agree somewhat	agree completely

8.8 Effective site level supervisors distance themselves from the staff development process so that they can be objective in their evaluation of a teacher's performance.

disagree completely	disagree somewhat	agree somewhat	agree completely

8.9 Integrated Instruction procedures are equally effective in primary-language classes and in second-language classes.

disagree completely	disagree somewhat	agree somewhat	agree completely

8.10 The most important goal of Bilingual and ESL instruction is to facilitate the development of higher order thinking skills.

disagree completely	disagree somewhat	agree somewhat	agree completely

developed for MA Bilingual/ESL Directors Training Activities 1991-1992
by Bob Parker, New England MRC at Brown University

APPENDIX C: SELECTED TRAINING HANDOUTS

CURRENT PRACTICES

INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICE	CLASSROOM PRACTICE or TEACHING METHOD/STRATEGY or LEARNING TASK	TEACHER PERFORMANCE
MEANING-COMPREHENSION EMPHASIS ["meaning-driven" instruction] ["comprehensible input"] ["constructivism" or "constructed learning"]	•organizers or "scaffolds" •advance organizers •graphic organizers •visual resources •wh-how questions •review-reentry with "spiral learning" •shared or guided composition •read along activities •TPR/action routines •assessment other than pencil-paper •comprehension-based games	•uses variety of visual-based learning media to establish comprehension •uses TPR or action routines during pre-production or "silent" period •uses advance organizers such as visuals + brainstorming to activate or develop schema •continuously uses oral summaries, graphic organizers, outlines, or examples during presentation, practice + application of lesson/unit content •assists students in making connections •emphasis on "key words" and phrases recorded on graphic organizers that students use as prompts during learning activities •continuous and daily use of review/re-entry activities but... •each review spirals up with more complex skill and depth of detail - i.e., starts with simpler version and tasks, and gradually increases complexity •demonstrates how to complete practice and learning activities •provides partially completed examples •models thought or thinking process •anticipates difficult areas + warns students or discusses difficulties with students

INTERACTIVE LEARNING	•collaborative learning
	  •task groups
	  •task pairs
	•information gathering
	•inquiry learning [using inductive or deductive method to learn a content]
	•problem solving
	•hands-on activities
	•collaborative reading
	•collaborative-shared composition
	•shared reading
	•language experience
	•whole language/global language
	•reciprocal teaching, facilitating + demonstrating
	•contextualized instruction of language features such as grammar, syntax, sound, and spelling forms, as well as skill features
	•learning logs, reading logs, dialogue journals
		•facilitates collaborative tasks
		•organizes instruction so that students have opportunity to learn in a class-size group, task groups, task pairs and individually
		•provides guided questions and organizers so that students can collect information for oral and written reports
		•provides conferences for writing and assignment activities to task groups and pairs as well as individuals
		•"learns" with students - i.e. models learning and thinking as an *ad hoc* member of a task group
		•guides students in applying problem-solving steps to conflicts in literature and social studies lessons as well as math + science lessons
		•co-teaches with students
		•pre-teaches how to use guided questions
		•guides participatory activities
		•demonstrates how to use learning resources
		•lists tasks and product outcomes
		•uses big or predictable books
		•develops discrete skill or knowledge of language features through context of big books, and content area lessons
		•emphasizes "invented" spelling and grammar/syntax in written discourse

INTEGRATIVE INSTRUCTION Language Domains Integration where all the language modalities are used in lessons and units Integration of content area topics/themes and language modalities Integration or clustering of instructional practices Assessment integrates content and skill in testing activities, does *not* assess discrete skills or language features	•"write-to-read" •contextualized instruction •integrated units/lessons •interdisciplinary/thematic units •modified or "sheltered" content •language experience •TPR/action routines/chants used with graphic organizers and written summaries •make-a-book •logs and journals •invented spelling and grammar •role play and scenarios •dramas - student generated as well as provided •oral and written reports	•stresses use of skills within the generation of student generated narratives and expository discourse •requires oral and written summaries •requires learning logs with conferences •does not over-correct/stresses communication rather than drill •uses contexualized practice activities where students use targeted skills and language features •uses fewer dittos and more "texts" generated by students or student-teacher generated texts
STUDENT CENTERED [Holistic instruction emphasizes whole texts as well as teaches to the whole child.]	•teach to student goals •emphasis on practical skills •motivating topics •"sheltered content" •student create own materials •family literacy, math, science •problem solving [real-life and learning/study problems]	•describes and reviews required classroom protocols and behavior •lists/specifies to students performance and product outcomes •gives immediate feedback •describes/reviews how to complete task analysis •asks students to give input into choice of topics or themes of lessons and units as well as skills developed during instruction •identifies skill tasks and subordinating skills necessary for learning student-identified topics and skills •does *not* forbid home-language use in ESL and English classes •creates a relaxed and stress-reduced classroom environment •encourages tutoring for less capable student by more capable LEP peer or more proficient/monolingual peer •uses a personalized reward system for positive study and learning behavior, and for achievement and sustained performance

USE OF "WHOLE TEXTS" Instead of analyzing language fragments, students are guided in generating and using whole sentences, paragraphs, stories, and texts. Whole oral and written discourse is used as a "resource" for acquiring proficiency in and learning about any language.	●literature-based introductory and developmental reading activities ●easy-read ●"spiral up" from key words ●student generated "texts" with the use of guided-shared composition [variation of language experience] ●silent reading ●functional reading (charts, tables, newspapers, magazines, matrices) ●read-to/listen-to activities ●contextualized instruction of language features and skills	●uses divergent comprehension as well as convergent comprehension questions ●uses less drill of language and skill fragments ●uses application and synthesis activities before analysis ●displays student learning "products" ●emphasizes composition, silent reading and oral production more than pencil-paper seat work/dittos for practice/drill of language fragments ●uses meaningful or quality literature rather than uninteresting/meaningless reading selections ●uses interactive and integrative instructional activities for all the contents: language arts, science, social studies

COGNITIVE STRATEGIES	•contextualized instruction - i.e., thinking skills used/applied through literature and content topics •organizers - advance and graphic organizers •oral and written summaries •guided questions and information gathering •problem solving •aesthetic activities used for application-level learning	•teaches use of and requires student use of metalanguage and metacognitive language/terms •uses divergent comprehension activities •summarizes often and ask students to summarize in own words •uses and refers to charts, outlines, graphic organizers in lessons/units - and encourages students to use such scaffolds/organizers while practicing and applying •uses numerous teaching styles •emphasizes comparison-contrast during practice and application activities •stresses learning process and strategies as well as discrete thinking skills - with demonstrations on how to use these procedural facilitators •emphasizes application to students' personal experiences •requires oral and written summaries or precis •stresses organization skills •stress on CALP skills or "learning to learn" skills rather than low-level convergent comprehension and memorization skills •stresses creative outcomes - i.e.,students produce a product which requires creativity •emphasizes and demonstrates sustained performance with a stress on elaboration, revision, and appropriate choice •encourages student self-learning strategies

"MODIFIED" GUIDED INSTRUCTION a growing trend which synthesizes the less structured and ambiguous "process learning" practice which stresses "implicit skills" with the more structured "guided instruction" use of "mastery" of discrete skill	•guided practice •differentiated learning •formal instructional management process steps	•uses "multi-modal" or "differentiated" instruction [instruction mixes more than one teaching-learning style with large groups, task groups, task pair, and individualized instruction] •uses performance portfolios as well as pencil-paper assessment •uses conferences •teaches how to complete a task analysis [guided task analysis] - i.e., demonstrates how to perform and apply a task analysis •stresses learning process as well learning as products •continuously checks on student process - i.e. each student's use of tasks and development of products •numerous review and re-entry or comprehension checks •numerous short quizzes •direct instruction of use of materials and equipment •direct instruction of learning behaviors or protocols for learning modes •establishes student criterion for performance with individual student •uses numerous demonstrations •uses numerous illustration and exemplification

CURRENT INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT PRACTICES-PRINCIPLES

1. *articulated performance and product outcomes* [on units or lesson plans]
2. *documented learning tasks and products* [use of organizers, checklists, or charts which student use to guide them through activities or assignments]
3. *collaborative learning* groups and pairs
4. *differentiated learning-teaching* model [groups, pairs and individualized]
5. daily *silent reading* period [teacher models]
6. *daily writing* in learning or process logs or journals [teacher models]
7. *integrated and holistic assessment*
    (1) less emphasis on testing discreet skills and language features
    (2) performance portfolios to document growth of control of skill and depth of knowledge, and proof of sustained performance
8. stress on *process and product* [e.g., using *composition process as way to teach subject-area* content and operational skills]
9. less drill and discreet-skill practice and *more application through content*
10. use of *integrated-thematic units* [at secondary as well as elementary]
11. *depth of knowledge* about fewer topics/themes
12. as knowledge base becomes increasingly more complex and detailed, *skills are emphasized as a bridge* to expansion of knowledge
13. *consistency* of practice and learning activities as well as classroom rules and regulations but not so rigid to cause stressful environment
14. use of *wide range of learning resources*, including computers
15. *continuous review and re-entry* but each time the review is conducted so that subordinating detail is added and students' knowledge base becomes deeper and more complex

developed by Bob Parker, New England Multifunctional Resource Center at Brown University - Winter 1990

extrapolated from *The Integrated Model* © 1980 Robert C. Parker

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE TASK GROUP

What are some practices that promote interactive learning in ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE classrooms?	What would you see/hear in classrooms where interactive learning is taking place?	What would teachers be doing in the interactive classroom?	What would students be doing in the interactive classroom?	What types of materials or resources would be used in the interactive classroom? What would the classroom look like?(organization,displays)
1. articulate + provide to students 1.1 goals 1.2 roles + responsibilities 1.3 rationale/justification 1.4 outcome/rewards 2. student input in choice of topics ⇒ ownership	1. students working together 2. teacher learning with students 3. teacher not center of activity 4. learning movement 5. grouping + regrouping 6. lots of realia + learning "stuff" [appropriate to age of group] 7. computers 8. student work displayed 9. variety of learning styles 10. progressive stories 11. student progress thermometers 12. collaborative projects, stories, photographs, recordings	1. establishes themes 2. encourages students to identify learning activities 3. provides schema building activities 4. facilitating 5. reading stories	1. learning in different way 2. talking 3. grouping + regrouping 4. working in informal as well as formal ways 5. "talking" + "working" on task 6. reading to each other	1. lots of props + realia to stimulate meaningful communication 2. maps, newspapers, computer software, texts about variety of subjects, vcr/tv, library books, pictures, camcorder, audio cassettes, art supplies

WHY INTERACTIVE LEARNING IS BENEFICIAL/NEEDED IN ESL

1. fosters communication

2. focuses on meaning rather than language or skill fragments

3. focusing on task completion and process minimizes self consciousness

4. leads to a friendlier atmosphere/learning environment which encourages risk taking and lowers "affective filter"

    4.1 less fear of more "difficult" language domains
    4.2 allows student to function within his/her concept of how to learn until ready to try other learning styles/strategies

5. leads to a sense of accomplishment which motivates the learner and enhances self-esteem

6. processing the learning activities and language used within the activities, student automatically uses/applies a wide range of...

    6.1 communicative functions,
    6.2 notions/concepts, and
    6.3 "negotiation of meaning" [English oral discourse and pragmatics systems]

7. provides ample opportunities for observing others learning and on task

8. allows classroom/learning experience to be more like "real word" of communication

SOCIAL STUDIES TASK GROUP

What are some practices that promote interactive learning in SOCIAL STUDIES classrooms?	What would you see/hear in classrooms where interactive learning is taking place?	What would teachers be doing in the interactive classroom?	What would students be doing in the interactive classroom?	What types of materials or resources would be used in the interactive classroom? What would the classroom look like?(organization,displays)
1. flexible scheduling	1. hands-on activities	1. facilitating	1. interacting with peers + teacher	1. wide range of culturally relevant materials
2. physical arrangement	2. learning groups + pairs [student-to-student interaction]	2. teacher as resource for learning structure, choices, boundaries + safety	2. cross cultural/racial interaction	2. multi-modal materials
3. teacher as facilitator	3. movement/action	3. provides reflective time	3. developing instructional materials	3. realia - maps, charts
4. awareness of students' backgrounds	4. role playing	4. provides tasks to link learning with students' experiences	4. integrating languages	4. time lines + place lines
5. heterogenous classes	5. students making + interacting with visual resources	5. shows excitement	5. expressing opinions	5. thematic resources
6. team teaching + collaborating	6. non-traditional classroom setting [student + learning centered]	6. emphasizes convergent + creative thinking	6. respecting divergent views	6. multilingual materials
7. peer evaluation by students and teachers	7. contrasting + debating issues/concepts	7. works with students in task groups [models learning behavior]	7. sharing experiences	7. multicultural materials
8. wide range of student materials	8. reflecting, especially on current events	8. participates in learning experiences	8. collaborating in small groups, jig-saw reading, peer tutoring, deciding, evaluating	8. visually rich + multisensory
9. context embedded	9. making relationships = connections on time + place lines	9. listens intently when students respond or suggest; gives appropriate feedback	9. using diverse writing forms	
10. cooperative groups and pairs	10. individual inquiry	10. praising + rewarding	10. accessing the community	
11. integrative-thematic [universal themes]		11. encourages peer praising	11. telling who they are	
12. comparative units		12. holistic assessment - not just cognitive		
13. human ecological wellness				
14. students as well as teachers as learning resource - i.e., reciprocal knowledge				

ELEMENTARY LANGUAGE ARTS TASK GROUP

What are some practices that promote interactive learning in Language Arts classrooms?	What would you see/hear in classrooms where interactive learning is taking place?	What would teachers be doing in the interactive classroom?	What would students be doing in the interactive classroom?	What types of materials or resources would be used in the interactive classroom? What would the classroom look like?(organization,displays)
1. cooperative activities and tasks (pairs or task groups) 2. student-centered activities 3. shared reading 4. communicative activities 5. context-topics are student directed	1. productive noise 2. student smiles 3. face-to-face seating 4. positive reinforcement 5. sharing 6. groups rather than rows of chairs-desks 7. peer coaching 8. learning centers	1. modeling 2. guiding/facilitating 3. walking/talking 4. encouraging small groups, pairing, and individualized instruction 5. listening to students 6. sharing applicable knowledge with students but not lecturing 7. asking thought-provoking questions 8. building comprehension skills in many ways not just with ditto sheets 9. praising 10. touching when culturally appropriate 11. interacting 12. using context-based or "contextualized" instructions/assignments 13. thematic units	1. working on journals [overtime] 2. *acquisition* of lang. arts skills 3. using inventive spelling, grammar, composition 4. focus on meaning [meaning driven] 5. using all language domains 6. doing experiments 7. drawing/illustrating 8. making books 9. using variety of visuals to establish comprehension + for pre-writing activities 10. developmentally appropriate activities (e.g., no lined paper for K or pre-k students)	1. quality literature (can be wordless) 2. technology/computers (can be used for developing revision and editing skills) 3. manipulatives (used to make language comprehensible) 4. displays of students' work (e.g., writing samples, creative work) 5. language experience charts 6. wide-range of resource materials (dictionaries, encyclopedias, picture books, subject-area texts) 7. display of a wide-range of genre 8. developmentally appropriate materials

MATHEMATICS TASK GROUP: THEMATIC INTERDISCIPLINARY UNIT - VEGETABLE GARDEN

What are some practices that promote interactive learning in MATHEMATICS classrooms?	What would you see/hear in classrooms where interactive learning is taking place?	What would teachers be doing in the interactive classroom?	What would students be doing in the interactive classroom?	What types of materials or resources would be used in the interactive classroom? What would the classroom look like?(organization,displays)
	1. hands-on; simulations [tape-off floor, divide garden for specific plants,] 2. clustering of desks 3. work stations; learning centers 4. displays and bulletin boards devoted to target unit topic - includes student drawings as well as commercially available materials	1. sets goals [team planning recommended] 2. develops + uses task or process outline; provides to students 3. monitors each group's progress thru process or sequence 4. interacts with each group for... 4.1 motivating members 4.2 probing student thought 4.3 problem solving 4.4 identify other resources/approaches 4.5 validate creative effort 4.6 make connections to other subject areas 4.7 identify enrichment resources 5. create appropriate environment 6. facilitates jig-saw groups	1. participate in specialists groups + demonstrates individualized expertise [i.e., planting, harvesting; natural controls; weather factors; soil cultivation; etc.] 2. uses references [e.g., seed catalogs, books, family, almanac] 3. participates in a planning group [designs garden; planting schedule; scale models] 4. identifies problems + plans for them 5. uses writing logs for data collection, problem solving 6. participates in hands-on activities[e.g., measures plot; creates timelines; graphs plot; solves geometry + % problems	1. realia relevant to topic of unit [seed catalogs, seed packets] 2. relevant printed resources [almanacs, books about gardening and vegetables-flowers, gardening encyclopedias] 3. graph paper 4. masking tape, pens 5. tape measure

SCIENCE TASK GROUP

What are some practices that promote interactive learning in SCIENCE classrooms?	What would you see/hear in classrooms where inter-active learning is taking place?	What would teachers be doing in the interactive classroom?	What would students be doing in the interactive classroom?	What types of materials or resources would be used in the interactive classroom? What would the classroom look like?(organization,displays)
1. interdisciplinary + thematic	1. students contributing	1. moving among groups	1. collecting data	1. learning centers w/ appropriate resources for each activity
2. writing across curric. w/ emphasis on logs + journals	2. students-teacher as investigators	2. facilitating	2. researching data	2. lab resources
3. performance portfolios	3. clear role delineation	3. clarifying	3. collaborating within a pair or task group	3. trade books
4. text(s) as resource(s)	4. *organized* excitement/ *organized* disorder	4. focusing/assisting students in making connections	4. formulating-predicting	4. audio + video equipment with tapes
5. inquiry-learning/ dialectical/ scientific method approach	5. hands-on learning	5. monitoring + responding to journals/logs	5. demonstrating in group or individually	5. primary + secondary resources
6. empirical and problem-solving		6. searching for + tapping resources	6. helping each other - from group to group + within a group	6. wide variety of recycled materials
7. supported by administration [budget]		7. identifying parent resources	7. writing in logs/journals	7. variety of measuring devices
		8. modeling appropriate scientific behavior + language	8. hands-on science reports	8. safety equipment
		9. ensuring safety	9. using a wide-range of learning media	equal access to all facilities, materials, and personnel
		10. identifying cooperative scientists		
		11. participating in inter-active reading		
		12. organizing parapro-fessional activities		

Figure 5.2

Application of Deming's Fourteen Points to Supervision

1. *Create constancy of purpose for the improvement of product and service.*	Redirect supervision's role from "checking on teachers" to a primary role of continually stimulating research, innovation, improvement, and developing strategies for maintaining quality standards once improvements are instituted.
2. *Adopt a new philosophy.*	For all associated with the supervision process, inculcate and reinforce a sense of values devoted to excellence in workmanship and service.
3. *Cease dependence on mass inspections.*	Shift supervisory attention from inspection of school system products for defects and "required re-cycling" to improvement of the process that is responsible for the observed results.
4. *End the practice of awarding business on price tag alone.*	Develop long-term relationships with individuals and agencies that can supply the best quality supervisory support. Awarding contracts to lowest bidders too often equates to the lowest quality of materials and services' being available to support supervision processes.
5. *Improve constantly and forever the system of production and service.*	Management, and all others involved in the supervision process, must be dedicated to the search for improving quality. This will require a long-term commitment to supervisory resources, to promoting the stature and visibility of the supervision process, and to adequately recognizing accomplishments that the supervisory process yields.
6. *Institute job training and job retraining.*	Provide effective linkage between supervision and staff development activity.
7. *Institute leadership.*	Conceptualize the role of supervisors as facilitators, leaders, helpers, and diagnosticians rather than tellers, checkers, or punishers and provide training to improve supervisors' skills in these areas.
8. *Drive out fear.*	Promote personal and professional feelings of security among school staff. Eliminate punishment, retribution, and other forms of threat. Promote an open, respectful, and appreciative supervisory environment.

Figure 5.2—*continued*

Application of Deming's Fourteen Points to Supervision

9. *Break down barriers between staff areas.*	Resolve interdepartmental, interschool competition. Establish collaborative and mutually supportive and complementary goals. Build a team approach to problem solving and quality improvement.
10. *Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and work force targets*	Avoid "top down" slogans and admonitions. Let these adornments surface from within grass roots groups if they so choose. Likewise, performance targets should be set by these groups.
11. *Eliminate numerical quotas.*	Avoid tying supervisory judgments of performance to satisfaction of minimal quotas. Performance judgments should be derived not from numbers but from quality and effective application of sound methods of practice.
12. *Remove barriers to pride of workmanship.*	Supervisors should strive to ensure that school personnel have the guidance, tools, equipment, materials, and support services required to do an "excellent job." The supervisor should be vigilant of opportunities to remove barriers to these requirements.
13. *Institute a vigorous program of education and retraining (focused on quality).*	All participants in the supervisory process, including management, must be provided with the insights and skills required of a comprehensive quality improvement effort. For example, education and training devoted to quality improvement concepts and philosophies, team building, statistical procedures, problem solving, and decision making is essential.
14. *Take action to accomplish the transformation.*	A well-prepared (representative, experienced, and skilled) supervisory infrastructure must be formed to provide overall direction and support to the systemwide improvement effort. Long-range goal setting and action planning by this participatory group is essential.

Adult Learning Theory

Given that effective supervision is fundamentally a growth-inducing (learning) process, the literature on adult learning is particularly instructive in terms of how to relate to adults (be they parents, teachers, or administrators) involved in the process of supervision. Knowles (1980) provides four assumptions that he maintains should direct the efforts of those who facilitate adult learning. These assumptions and their application to supervision are shown in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3

Application of Adult Learning Theory to Supervision

1. *Self-concept*	Supervisory processes should recognize adults as autonomous and self-directing.
2. *Experience*	Adults have rich backgrounds to be tapped through supervisory processes. Supervision can elicit individuals' expertise and bring it to bear, in a collective fashion, on pressing educational issues.
3. *Readiness for learning*	Adults' readiness for learning is determined by the unique circumstances they encounter in their professional practice. Supervision must be sensitive to the actual and perceptual reality of all involved in the supervisory process.
4. *Time perspective*	Adults' involvement in developmental activities will vary according to the immediacy of application of newly acquired abilities and insights. Adults will be committed to supervision that can yield desirable results in the near-term future. Adults must see how supervisory initiatives relate to their current professional lives.

Dade County's evolution of supervisory practices to support restructuring has adhered closely to the assumptions advanced by Knowles.

Figure 5.4

Application of Organization Development (OD) Processes to Supervision

1. *The goals of OD*	Supervisory processes should contribute to generation and evolution of school improvement goals and to communication, understanding, and widespread adoption of them.
2. *Self-renewal*	Supervision must develop the district's internal capacity for improvement.
3. *A systems approach*	Supervision must concentrate on generating changes in all aspects of the system.
4. *Focus on people*	Supervisory actions must be based on the requirements of people in the system—the system's greatest resource. "People issues" need to be addressed before task, structure, and technology issues.
5. *An educational strategy*	Supervision should foster participants' growth and be sensitive to learning needs, styles, and resources. Inservice programs should concurrently address participants' needs and school improvement goals.
6. *Learning through experience*	Supervision must promote learning opportunities that are integrally related to job performance, including on-the-job training, experimentation, mentoring, action research, coaching, performance analysis feedback, team learning, and reflective practice discussions.
7. *Dealing with real problems*	Supervision must help participants identify and assign priorities to improvement opportunities.
8. *A planned strategy*	Supervision should be driven by declared goals and by a design for achieving the goals. Plans must be sensitive to the "customers" of the supervisory initiatives.
9. *Change agent*	Those giving guidance to the supervisory process must be carefully selected. These agents need to be viewed by participants in the system as credible and competent.
10. *Involvement of top-level administration*	Supervision must ensure that administrators of the district and bargaining units are actively involved. Passive endorsement is not sufficient. Leaders must be visible in the supervisory process, participate in it, and demonstrate an ongoing commitment to restructuring. Actions being asked of people at lower levels also should be pursued by those at higher organizational levels.

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REMOVING THE "SUPER" FROM SUPERVISION

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The title of the 1992 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development is *Supervision in Transition*.[1] According to the many contributing authors, supervision of teachers in public schools is in a state of transition from a traditional view of supervision as a hierarchical construct, to a more democratic, or horizontal, notion of supervision. It is not surprising that this transition is occurring during a period when traditional views about power and control are being questioned by the postmodern movement and when educational critics are calling for the empowerment of teachers.

How is this transition taking place within school districts that have chosen to grapple with the issue? Is it possible to create democratic or nonhierarchical models of supervision that empower teachers? What messages are we receiving from the experimentation that is underway within schools districts across North America? This article will explore some of the arguments available within the literature related to the democratization of supervision, and then examine these questions within the framework of one school district's attempt to achieve a more democratic, empowering vision of supervision.

HIERARCHICAL VERSUS HORIZONTAL SUPERVISION

The transition to empowering forms of teacher supervision has emerged from a long-standing debate about the purpose of the supervisory process in education. Historical accounts of the development of supervisory practice document a failed attempt during the 1930s and '40s to democratize supervision by giving voice to teachers in instructional and

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[1] Carl Glickman, ed., *Supervision in Transition: 1992 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1992).

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curriculum matters.[2] This failure occurred, according to Glanz, because at the time supervisors were also struggling to attain status as professionals.[3] In the struggle, the democratic, professional view of supervision lost ground to the scientific, technological view, because the latter view held more legitimacy among scientists and educators during that period.[4] Since then, advocates of the two views have continued the debate.[5]

Tracy and MacNaughton distinguish between two approaches to supervision: ***neo-progressive***, located within the tradition of cognitive development; and ***neo-traditionalist***, located within the tradition of behavioral psychology.[6] Neo-progressives view teaching as a complex and uncertain process requiring continuous judgment and decision making on the part of the teacher, whereas neo-traditionalists view teaching as the technical process of applying scientific knowledge. Darling-Hammond and Sclan aptly describe the two approaches:

> Neo-progressives are concerned with developing deliberative classrooms that support both teachers and students in constructing meaning from their interactions with each other and with the world they study. Neo-traditionalists are concerned with specifying and producing teacher behaviors thought to increase those student behaviors thought to be associated with learning. . . . The goal is to coach teachers to display these behaviors rather than to identify and solve actual problems of practice.[7]

Proponents of both approaches frequently lay claim to the term ***clinical supervision***, a supervision process originating with Cogan and Goldhammer.[8] However, neo-progressives focus on the reflective, collegial, and professional aspects of the clinical supervision model.[9] The neo-traditionalists, on the other hand, tend to emphasize behavioral factors.[10] Therefore, what has emerged are two different perspectives within clinical supervision. Despite the attempts of some neo-progressives to refocus attention on the importance of reflection in the teaching/learning process, during the 1980s clinical supervision became almost synonymous with the behavioral, technical approach of Hunter, a development that Slavin calls "the Hunterization of America's schools."[11]

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[2] See Frances Bolin and Philip Panaritis, "Searching for a Common Purpose: A Perspective on the History of Supervision," in *Supervision in Transition: 1992 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development*, ed. Carl Glickman (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1992); Jeffrey Glanz, *Bureaucracy and Professionalism: The Evolution of Public School Supervision* (Toronto: Associated University Press, 1991).

[3] Jeffrey Glanz, *Bureaucracy and Professionalism: The Evolution of Public School Supervision* (Toronto: Associated University Press, 1991).

[4] Ibid.

[5] See, for example, Noreen Garman, Carl Glickman, Madeline Hunter, and Nelson Haggerson, "Conflicting Conceptions of Clinical Supervision and the Enhancement of Professional Growth and Renewal: Point and Counterpoint," *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* 2, no. 2 (1987): 152–177.

[6] Sandra Tracy and Robert MacNaughton, "Clinical Supervision and the Emerging Conflict Between the Neo-traditionalists and the Neo-progressives," *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* 4, no. 3 (1989): 246–256.

[7] Linda Darling-Hammond and Eileen Sclan, "Policy and Supervision," in *Supervision in Transition: 1992 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development*, ed. Carl Glickman (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1992), pp. 15–16.

[8] Morris Cogan, *Clinical Supervision* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1973); Robert Goldhammer, *Clinical Supervision: Special Methods for the Supervision of Teachers* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969).

Many school districts interpreted the Hunter model as a convenient research-based set of criteria for judging the competence of teachers. These districts adopted the Hunter model of clinical supervision and often incorporated it into their evaluation systems as well, so that administrators evaluated teachers on the basis of their ability to demonstrate the effective teaching criteria advocated by Hunter.[12] Thus, supervision came to be dominated by a technological, hierarchical view of teaching and learning.[13]

Recently, however, the neo-progressive approach seems to be gaining popularity. At the 1992 meeting of the American Educational Research Association, experts such as Garman, Goldsberry, Glatthorn, Rust, and Gall engaged in a debate entitled, "Isn't It Time to Bury Clinical Supervision?"[14] Gall argued that clinical supervision can help teachers become better instructors by focusing on skills training. However, the other panelists strongly objected to the prescriptive, hierarchical model that had come to be implied by the term *clinical supervision*. Glatthorn argued that this model of clinical supervision runs counter to calls for collegiality among educators by maintaining the hierarchical roles of supervisor and supervisee; Goldsberry criticized clinical supervision as "top-down autocracy that is demeaning and oppressive to the teaching class"; and Garman condemned clinical supervision as having assumed the mantle of "functionalist instrumentalism," where teachers are mere instruments carrying out prescribed functions. These critics are opposed to clinical supervision not because they object to the use of research-based knowledge in supervisory settings, but because the application of such knowledge has traditionally implied a superordinate/subordinate relationship between supervisor and teacher. Opponents of clinical supervision call instead for a more collegial, reflective approach to supervision.

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[9] See Noreen Garman, "The Clinical Approach to Supervision," in *Supervision of Teaching: 1982 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development*, ed. Thomas Sergiovanni (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1982); Carl Glickman, *Supervision and Instruction: A Developmental Approach* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1985).

[10] Madeline Hunter, "Knowing, Teaching, and Supervising," in *Using What We Know About Teaching*, ed. Philip Hosford (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1984).

[11] See Arthur Costa, "Reaction to Hunter's Knowing, Teaching, and Supervising," in *Using What We Know About Teaching*, ed. Philip Hosford (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1984); Peter Grimmett and G. Erickson, eds., *Reflection in Education* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1988); Donald Schon, *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action* (New York: Basic Books, 1983); Madeline Hunter, "Knowing, Teaching, and Supervising," in *Using What We Know About Teaching*, ed. Philip Hosford (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1984); Robert Slavin, "The Hunterization of America's Schools," *Instructor* 96, no. 8 (1987).

[12] Edwin Bridges, *The Incompetent Teacher: The Challenge and the Response* (Philadelphia: The Falmer Press, 1986).

[13] Madeline Hunter has frequently criticized such prescriptive applications of her model.

[14] Noreen Garman, Lee Goldsberry, Allan Glatthorn, Frances Rust, and Meredith Gall, *Isn't It Time to Bury Clinical Supervision?* (invited panel, American Educational Research Association, April 1992).

The 1992 ASCD Yearbook suggests that supervision is in the process of shifting from the neo-traditionalist to the neo-progressive approach.[15] In what is perhaps the most powerful discussion of this transition, Gitlin and Price describe the process as movement away from a traditional model of "administrative supervision" toward one of "horizontal supervision."[16] Administrative supervision views the purpose of supervision to be quality control, in which "teachers are treated as if administrative supervision is necessary to ensure proper behavior." Horizontal supervision, on the other hand, is an "empowerment approach" to supervision in which "teachers start out by collaboratively analyzing the relationship between their teaching intentions and their practices in ways that point to 'living contradictions.'"[17]

Within this new conception of supervision, the roles of the supervisor and teacher are also changing. The supervisor is no longer viewed as the expert, passing along judgments and advice to teacher technicians. Instead the teacher is viewed as an equal who contributes valuable expertise and experience to the supervisory process. Grimmett, Rostad, and Ford describe it this way:

> Observers respectfully act on the assumption that teachers hold the key to unraveling their own instructional dilemmas, thus fostering the supportive but challenging conditions that permit teachers to engage in the reflective transformation of their classroom experience.[18]

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[15] Carl Glickman, ed., *Supervision in Transition: 1992 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1992).

[16] Andrew Gitlin and Karen Price, "Teacher Empowerment and the Development of Voice," in *Supervision in Transition: 1992 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development*, ed. Carl Glickman (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1992).

[17] Ibid., p. 66.

[18] Peter Grimmett, Olaf Rostad, and Blake Ford, "The Transformation of Supervision," in *Supervision in Transition: 1992 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development*, ed. Carl Glickman (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1992), p. 200.

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Part of teachers' expertise comes from knowledge about the body of research related to instructional practice. The Supportive Supervision Model supports the problem-solving approach of the neo-progressives, but it does not dismiss the research-based knowledge advocated by neo-traditionalists. Instead, Supportive Supervision promotes a model of teacher supervision that perceives such research-based knowledge as a tool for teachers to use in solving problems related to instructional practice. At the same time, Supportive Supervision views the teacher as the expert who interprets and applies such knowledge to daily practice. The Supportive Supervision Model examined in this article is an example of an attempt to empower teachers through supervision.

THE SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION MODEL

Both teachers and administrators within the Pleasant Valley Central School District had become frustrated with the existing evaluation process. Their frustration stemmed from the fact that the highly structured, checklist-driven process was designed to ensure the minimal competency of teachers, but it did not lead to instructional improvement or to teacher growth.

In November 1987 the superintendent challenged the district's Professional Staff Development Committee to review the existing program for teacher supervision and evaluation and to formulate recommendations that would "promote professional growth, provide external data on teaching performance for use by the teacher, be safe and nonthreatening, and be directly tied to staff development."[19] A Subcommittee on Evaluation was formed, composed of teachers, building and district administrators, and union leaders.

After three years of reviewing research, visiting sites with exemplary teacher evaluation models, and gathering input and feedback from district teachers and administrators, the subcommittee produced a 47-page document called "The Supportive Supervision Model." The model subsequently received approval for piloting within the district from the teachers association and the school board and was piloted by a group of 40 teachers and administrators during the 1991–92 school year. At the end of the pilot year, a team of administrators and teachers who had been involved in the pilot revised the model on the basis of feedback received from the entire pilot group.

Supportive Supervision assumes that, with few exceptions, tenured teachers are competent and that supervision for such teachers should focus on the continuing development of the teacher's professional knowledge and skills. The original model consisted of four modes in which teachers and supervisors could operate: an entry-level phase, two optional phases for teachers with advanced skills, and an intensive phase for teachers deemed by administrators to be experiencing serious difficulty within the classroom.

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[19] The Supportive Supervision Model (November 1990), p. 4.

In the entry-level phase (Phase A), the teacher and supervisor would collaboratively develop goals for the teacher's improvement plan, and then the supervisor was to provide the support necessary to help the teacher achieve those goals. Such support might include things such as reinforcing teacher strengths, providing results about teaching performance, planning strategies to meet goals, facilitating and recommending staff development, and providing resources. Teachers needing considerable help to become successful in the classroom would participate in "Intensive Supervision" (Phase D). And for teachers considered "capable and effective" (qualities assumed to apply to the majority of faculty), two options would provide opportunities to have more autonomy in setting and pursuing goals that applied either to the classroom (Phase B) or to building- or district-level goals (Phase C). Regardless of the phase in which supervision occurred, the model was "characterized by collaborative goal setting, many observations, and specific and numerous informal and formal conferences throughout the year."

The model is essentially a form of clinical supervision, and the rationale behind the Supportive Supervision Model includes statements such as the following:

> - The process is designed for the purpose of professional growth and development.
> - Setting individual goals encourages teachers to stretch themselves and establishes a climate in which striving and growing are expected.
> - A goal-setting process provides a real opportunity for teacher involvement within the system.
> - Collaborative goal setting allows for more opportunities to build trust between administrators and teachers.

Such a rationale suggests a neo-progressive stance toward supervision. Some of the caveats expressed within the model also are consistent with neo-progressivism:

> - The Supportive Supervision Model relies on trust, commitment and goodwill by all parties. Finger pointing and hidden agendas will undermine the process.
> - The feedback activities and classroom observations outlined within the model need are [sic] need not be limited to building principals and teachers. Several successful models use peer coaches and/or mentors.
> - If the supervisor expects a teacher to develop goals that encourage "stretch," he/she cannot "punish" the teacher with highly critical, out-of-context or negative evaluation reports. Such practice will only foster weak goal setting practices.

The emphasis on collaboration, and the suggestion that such collaboration may occur between teachers as peers as well as between administrators and teachers, indicates an intent to design a less hierarchical and a more horizontal model of supervision.

RESEARCH ON SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION

The observations contained within this report were documented during the 1991–92 school year—the first year of a two-year study of the process of piloting and implementing Supportive Supervision within the Pleasant Valley Central School District. Pseudonyms have been used to protect the identity of the school district and of individuals within the district.

Supportive Supervision first came to the researcher's attention through association with a university consultant who was hired by the school district to help prepare teachers and administrators for the change in philosophy, attitude, and behavior that the new model would require. The language of the written model stressed a more collegial supervisor-teacher relationship, in which the teachers would have control over the direction of their professional growth. Supportive Supervision's unique orientation to teacher growth and the absence of language related to accountability were intriguing. How would teachers and administrators make sense of the model in relation to the context of their work? How would the model look in practice? And how would teacher experiences, beliefs, and expectations about teacher supervision and evaluation affect perceptions about the new model and interaction patterns between teachers and supervisors?

The administrators at both the central office and the schools were receptive to a study of the new program. They believed that Supportive Supervision was a sound and promising program. Representatives from the district had already described the new program at state and national conferences, and district leaders were excited about the additional attention the research might bring to the district. Arrangements were made for research to proceed at two schools within the district—one high school and one K-2 building. It would be impossible to study all five schools, and these two schools were chosen to represent the highest and lowest levels of elementary and secondary education within the district.

The researcher attended the administrator training sessions during the summer of 1991 and the teacher-administrator training sessions during the fall of 1991 and the spring of 1992. From September to March—the period covered by the report—the high school was visited an average of twice per week. Visits to the elementary school did not begin until December 1991, after which visits were made to each school an average of once per week.

Visits involved participant-observation during faculty meetings, department meetings, staff development days, and community-school meetings such as parent orientation nights, parent-teacher organization meetings, and capital project information meetings. Interviews were conducted with most of the people who had been involved in the development of the Supportive Supervision Model and with all but one member of the pilot teams in each of the two schools—12 at the high school and 7 at the elementary school. The research included analyses of both the November 1990 and the August 1992 versions of the Supportive Supervision document. There were also many opportunities for informal conversations with pilot and nonpilot faculty members before, during, and after meetings, in the corridors, in the faculty room, and over lunch. Field notes were recorded after each visit.

The research resulted in approximately 900 single-spaced pages of data, representing field work, in-depth interviews, and follow-up interviews with approximately 25 teachers, administrators, and teacher leaders. The ensuing events and quotes were selected from among a rich data base because they most aptly described the nature of the dialogue and the events that were shaping the transition from an administrator-driven supervisory process to a teacher-controlled, collaborative practice. A careful search for negative instances assured that the data interpretation was valid. Those negative cases were incorporated into the reported data and became part of the analysis.

ADMINISTRATOR AS SUPERVISOR

At the outset of the project, the Professional Staff Development Committee asked administrators to recruit five or six volunteer teachers within each school. The committee provided no instructions about how these teams of teachers should operate and no direction concerning such matters as who would supervise whom, how many goals should be set, the process for developing goals, timelines, and so forth. The pilot participants met at the district level four times during the pilot year and raised questions at these meetings concerning the practical operation of the model. The response from the chairman of the Professional Staff Development Committee was generally nondirective. He asked the pilot teams to develop their own mode of operation and to reflect on the process throughout the year. The district team members were to serve as participants within the pilot project as well as evaluators of the model itself. The purpose of the district meetings was to share feedback among the building teams, to make recommendations for improving the model, and to develop common understandings about how the model should operate. The lack of specific direction resulted in the model being practiced differently in each school during the early stages of the pilot. The data for this report focus on the K-2 school and the high school.

Within the K-2 school, the principal took a backseat role, and the teachers took charge of the pilot project. This was a situation that the teachers were quite used to, since their principal had a history of reluctance to make decisions and failure to follow through on decisions. One teacher described the principal's working style as follows:

> He [the principal] doesn't want to make decisions because he doesn't want to make someone feel unhappy about the decision. So sometimes he puts things off. And people like him a lot as a person. He's capable of generating a lot of support and people say, "Yeah. I'll do that." . . . He says "Okay, I'll write it up." Well, it never gets written up, or it doesn't get organized. And it isn't, generally, through lack of enthusiasm on his part or the teacher's part. It's tenacity and getting a task to the end.

The elementary pilot teachers held team meetings within their building, and the six participants paired themselves to talk about specific goals, collaborate on strategies for achieving those goals, make classroom visitations, and analyze the results. Although frustrated that their principal failed to provide leadership, these teachers ended up having more supervisory contacts with their peer partners and expressed far more satisfaction with the model than did teachers in the high school.

In the high school both the principal and the vice principal recruited teams of participants. The principal asked the department chairs to form a team under her leadership, and the vice principal recruited a team of teachers. Goal setting was accomplished on a one-to-one basis. Participants did not meet as a team except for district meetings. A few teachers became frustrated when scheduled meetings with the administrator/supervisor were canceled because the administrator was called away to attend to other priorities. This happened frequently with the vice principal, who was generally called upon to take care of student discipline matters. Unlike the K-2 teachers, the high school teachers generally did not pair themselves with other pilot teachers when they became frustrated in their attempts to meet with their administrator. This was so even though at least two of the teachers were in the same department and only a few doors distant from each other. In explaining their experience within the pilot project, the high school teachers frequently focused on systemic or administrative problems, as this teacher did:

> I took the trouble to prepare a special lesson. It was something that I wanted to try, and I wanted him [the vice principal] to see it. I planned it for two classes—on Thursday afternoon and on Friday morning. And he couldn't make it to either one. You know, that doesn't seem like administrator support to me. They've got to decide what's more important. If it's Supportive Supervision, then they ought to take the time to meet with you or observe you.

Two of the department chairs formed a triad with the principal to work toward similar goals. But for the most part, it was clear that teachers expected their administrators to provide leadership and direction, and if the leadership was not there, most teachers did not reach out to other teachers as substitute supervisors.

It seemed unlikely that teachers would in fact choose to spend more time in collegial interaction with their administrators if that were possible. During interviews with pilot participants early in the pilot year, all of the teachers were asked: "Whom do you seek out when you have a professional question or concern?" When speaking about help with instructional matters, the teachers always mentioned first those teachers for whom they had considerable professional respect. A few mentioned the principal, but usually in relation to noninstructional problems that the teacher was experiencing with parents or with other teachers—problems that seemed to require the intervention of the principal. Teachers generally did not consider administrators to be primary resources about instructional matters.

Teacher distrust of administrators seemed to be common within the Pleasant Valley School District. Some of this distrust stemmed from having witnessed, at some point in the past, examples of unfair dismissal of teachers through the supervision/evaluation process:

> There have been lots of occasions when observations have been used to get rid of someone. Teachers go along for years and receive positive reports, and then something happens—the relationship between the teacher and the administrator changes—and all of a sudden there are several observations within a week or so. And the reports are negative: "You didn't respond adequately to that student's question." That sort of thing has happened several times in my experience.

Some of the distrust dated back to a particularly tempestuous period in union-board relationships during 1978–79, a period that teachers referred to as "war." This experience left teachers with a deep awareness of the ability of administrators to exert power and control over them or their work. One teacher explained:

> We have half, or maybe even more than half, of our staff—I would probably say three-quarters of our staff—who weren't even here at that time. They don't understand what we, the veterans, understand. The veterans understand what they [administrators] can do—what power they have.

As a result, teachers felt suspicious about administrative behavior—in spite of the fact that some teachers had developed a strong sense of interpersonal trust with their building administrators. However, this trust was specific to individuals, and teachers were wary about placing too much trust in one administrator because of the uncertainty of who might become their next administrator. One teacher summed up the sentiment of the majority of teachers when he said, "The true test [of Supportive Supervision] will come when we replace our superintendent and our principals."

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Teachers were concerned about the power that administrators could potentially wield in collaborative supervisory situations that required the teacher to be open and honest about their professional weaknesses:

> It's just a feeling that they [teachers] have. When I sit down with my administrator and say "this, and this, and this," is it going to be a safe thing to do? Or is it going to be twisted around to be insubordinate, or whatever. That kind of thing. Because a lot of people don't have that trust base built. And it's not easy for them to do. I don't know how else to explain it. It's just a safety factor. Is it something that is going to be a safe kind of thing to do? Because there still is a distinction between administration and the teaching population. And there's a world of difference in many people's eyes.

Despite efforts to assure teachers that administrators had been appropriately trained and were committed to creating a safe and supportive environment in which teachers could experiment and openly talk about their successes and failures in the classroom, teachers remained suspicious that administrators' theory-in-action might end up being quite different from their espoused theory.

Part of the teachers' unease stemmed from the confusion about how they would be assigned to the various phases within the model. Initially their understanding was that all teachers would enter the model in Phase A and would progress to Phases B or C, or regress to Phase D. Teachers understood that their principal would initiate the assignment of certain teachers to Phase D (Intensive Supervision), but how would teachers be assigned to either Phase B or Phase C? Some believed that the teacher would self-select to enter Phase B or Phase C. Most, however, believed that their principal or some other person would make that decision. In any case, teachers believed that their principal would play a key role in completing the paperwork necessary for teachers to progress from one phase to another. Some high school teachers were apprehensive that their principal (present or future) might assign teachers to phases arbitrarily or unfairly. Many elementary teachers were skeptical that their principal would complete the necessary paperwork that would permit them to progress into Phase B or C and that they might become "stuck" in Phase A. Thus, distrust of administration created some anxiety about movement from phase to phase within the model.

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FROM ADMINISTRATOR AS SUPERVISOR TO TEACHER AS COACH

Part of the preparation for participants in the Supportive Supervision pilot consisted of a five-day training program in cognitive coaching during February and March. Cognitive coaching is an approach to clinical supervision that is within the neo-progressive tradition.[20] It employs a coaching metaphor to describe the supervision process, whereby a "coach," through appropriate questioning and communication techniques, "mediates the consciousness" of the teacher in order to modify the teacher's capacity to modify himself or herself. Cognitive coaching emphasizes the development of trust between "coach" and "coachee" as the basic condition for teacher learning, which is the second goal of the process. The primary goal of cognitive coaching is the cognitive autonomy of the teacher, defined as the ability to self-direct, self-evaluate, and self-correct.

The Professional Staff Development Committee determined that it would be appropriate to incorporate cognitive coaching into the training for Supportive Supervision because the philosophy appeared to be compatible with the intent of the model, and because it would provide skills training that would help accomplish the goals of teacher growth and instructional improvement.

Several of the people who had been initially skeptical about Supportive Supervision returned from cognitive coaching much more enthusiastic. Some teachers began to speak positively with their colleagues about both Supportive Supervision and cognitive coaching. One teacher commented, "I think they [the cognitive coaching trainers] showed us that it *can* work." Another participant, when asked if there had been any surprises during the Supportive Supervision pilot project, responded this way:

> I guess surprise that people came back from the cognitive coaching and were positive in the faculty room. Most of them are all eternal pessimists. Now, when people came back from ITIP, they were not positive. . . . But this time people, when they came back, were being positive and they were really working on the cynics. . . . And I don't know if they convinced the cynics, but at least they were giving positive feedback for the program, which is something different.

Yet another participant, asked why he felt positive about cognitive coaching, responded, "I think because the supervisors don't tell the teachers what to do. They make suggestions and ensure that the teacher is thinking things through, but they let the teacher make their own decisions."

This represented an important shift in thinking about supervision. Teachers returned from cognitive coaching training with a sense that Supportive Supervision, if practiced appropriately, meant something other than more of the same old thing. For teachers supervision had traditionally meant "being supervised" and assuming a passive or reactive role. However, cognitive coaching caused teachers to think about Supportive Supervision as a process in which they would actively participate and over which they could exercise considerable control. One teacher said, "I see the administrator as more of a facilitator." Teachers would make decisions, and administrators would support teacher decisions and facilitate the process. One decision that teachers perceived as theirs to make was that of selecting their supervisors. Teachers began to think about selected colleagues replacing administrators as supervisors, and this possibility excited them and caused them to perceive Supportive Supervision as having significant potential.

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[20] Arthur Costa and Robert Garmston, "Cognitive Coaching—Supervision for Intelligent Teaching," in *Better Teaching Through Instructional Supervision: Policy and Practice,* compiled by Kenneth Tye and Arthur Costa (Sacramento, CA: California School Boards Association, 1986).

During the cognitive coaching training, teachers were asked to prepare mini-lessons, appropriate for their subject area and grade level, that they would then "teach" to other teachers in a small group to which they would later be assigned. Each teacher would take turns teaching a lesson, while others served as cognitive coaches. Some of the elementary teachers expressed considerable anxiety about the prospect of teaching a lesson to other teachers. One teacher exclaimed, "If I end up having to work with people I don't know well, I'm going to find a reason to leave the room." When later queried about her reaction, she elaborated:

> I was nervous at first. But as long as I could stay in my little group with you guys, I was fine. Then I got more comfortable and I didn't mind when I moved. But I had to start in that smaller group and know that it was nonthreatening. I'm just not a public speaker. I'm not one to speak in front of adults. I can do whatever in front of kids. But I can't speak in front of other adults. And . . . when you think of a high school teacher, they are, like, *above* an elementary teacher . . . Just in my head they are. They would just make me very nervous. Some of them I *had*. I had them as teachers. I mean [Bill] was my biology teacher. And that's where I ended up—in his group. I was okay by then because we had done so many [cognitive coaching trials] before that. So then I was fine.

On a different day during the training, another teacher confided, "My heart is still pounding. I had to teach my lesson this morning. I almost called in sick. Well, maybe not that bad, but I was really nervous." In response, a colleague stated,

> Thank God I wasn't in a group with [Bill]. I had him [as a teacher] in high school. He embarrassed me to tears as a student one day . . . I've forgiven him, but I've never been able to forget it. It's a vision that emerges in my mind whenever I have to deal with him.

Yet another elementary teacher explained her feelings during an interview:

> I think that sometimes when . . . high school teachers look at elementary teachers, I don't think that we really are—I don't know how to word this . . . Whether they just don't feel because we're dealing with little kids, it isn't the challenge or the job that they have dealing with high school kids.

The elementary teachers expressed a sense of personal and professional inferiority regarding their relationship with the high school teachers. Part of it may have been related to the age of the students and the sophistication of the content taught at the different levels; but some of it stemmed from the fact that, in Pleasant Valley, many of the teachers were former students of the more senior teachers within the district. Since there were few opportunities for teachers to interact as adults and professionals, especially between buildings, many teachers had not developed adult, collegial relationships with these former teachers.

However, the issue of trust among teachers was not merely a function of collegial versus student-teacher relationships. Nor was it confined to a particular level within the school system. Teachers at both the K-2 school and the high school raised the issue of trust among teachers. Teacher trust of other teachers was a complex part of the general relationship between teacher colleagues. Some of the comments offered by teachers associated the issue of trust with norms of privacy, autonomy, and the hoarding of ideas:

> They [teachers who are cynical about Supportive Supervision] don't want people in their rooms telling them what they're doing wrong. And they think they're going to have to open up. It's that privacy issue. They're going to have to open up and show someone what they do in their classroom. And they're leaving themselves open for someone to say it's right or wrong. They have a fear that people are going to discover things about them that will mean their jobs. Or they may take their very good idea, or something.

Or they interpreted trust issues through the norm of denying inadequacies:

> If you're doing it [Supportive Supervision] right it involves a great deal of work and responsibility to your colleagues. If you spend some time thinking of an appropriate goal, that requires a certain amount of self-discipline and focus and honest evaluation of your talents, and then when you reveal that to a colleague, you're making a major step in admitting that you're weak in an area—that you need to work in improving it.

Nevertheless, at least some teachers were willing, at times, to ignore these norms when interacting with selected teachers. Such selection was connected to both the personal and professional esteem with which the selected teacher was regarded. That is, it was necessary for teachers to be perceived as trustworthy in order to be selected for close professional interaction. One high school teacher described a practical relationship she had developed with several untrustworthy colleagues:

> There's enough people who went [to the cognitive coaching training] from this building, that I could find, probably, two or three that I could work with. But there are also several in the building who I would never ask to be a coach because they are very judgmental people. They're not terribly confidential people. And I feel that if I disturb that relationship that I have now, which is kind of "stand back," that I have to work here another 15 years. I don't want to get into conflicts with these people. And I don't want them to know where my weak areas are because I don't trust them.

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And this statement was made by an elementary teacher:

> See, we're doing that right now [observing each other teach and giving feedback]. See, we do that now in this program. That's what I'm doing this morning. TESA—that's another professional growth thing that some of us are involved in—five of us from this building. . . . They don't bother me. Because, again, the five of us who are doing it are very close friends. It was four other 1st grade teachers that I worked with last year who became very close. . . . I believe what they tell me. I will take their criticisms. You know, there are some people that if they criticize me I would punch them. But I believe in . . . I like the way they teach and even though our philosophies aren't the same and they teach entirely different than I do, I respect what they have to tell me.

In some cases teachers yearned for a closer professional relationship with other teachers/educators:

> I had thought today, as I was reading the *Esprit* article, that I would like to ask to have [David—a teacher/administrator within the district] to come in and watch me teach. I've always had respect for [David]—his teaching and his rapport with kids. Even though I never really observed him. . . . I think he really works hard at whatever he's doing. And I'd like to have him do it. I would really like to do that.

Because Supportive Supervision had the potential for developing the opportunity—perhaps even the responsibility—for the direct sharing of teaching practice and feedback about teaching practice, trust between peers was a significant issue. Teachers perceived the need to be selective about the teachers with whom they would share the most private aspects of their practice. The issue of choice was raised frequently during the cognitive coaching training and during district pilot team meetings. Some of the most frequently raised questions included "Do I get to choose who I work with?" and "Can we admit that this relationship can't work with all pairs?" Where teachers perceived a judgmental or a superordinate/subordinate relationship between teachers (as in the case of some elementary teachers' perceptions of their high school colleagues), trust became especially problematic.

The fact remained that many teachers were more satisfied with their interactions with other teachers during their experimentation with cognitive coaching than they had been with their attempts to conduct collaborative supervision with administrators. Some of the testimonies about collaboration with peers were especially revealing:

> It *does* work. And I think it works even better with someone, like in our situation, I know the six of us are very comfortable with each other. There's a trust base already there because we've worked together for a number of years and we know how each of us operates. So that first step of trust building didn't have to be worked out. . . . And I noticed, particularly when we were doing formal preconference and post-conference and that kind of thing—all the techniques of cognitive coaching—the mirroring, the paraphrasing, and that. You didn't have to work at it. You just did it. It wasn't something you were consci

> of . . . I think that worked because people were familiar with people and comfortable with them.

> At times it was a little uncomfortable for me. I felt put on the spot. You know. You're practicing something that you're really not familiar with. And with people with whom you are not familiar. I think if you're always working with people in your building you could say a lot and they would nod whether they really know or not. But I think working with other people forced you to be on your toes a little more—a little more articulate—made you stay focused. I enjoyed it. . . . And even if I don't do it very much I think it's another stone in my bag of tricks. Another part of my repertoire that can help me grow a little more.

These two issues—feeling comfortable with one's coach and the ability to learn something new—were important in engendering enthusiasm and commitment for collegial supervision among teachers. At times they could be conflicting goals. Teachers tended to trust those teachers with whom they shared personal friendships and closer professional relationships. However, many teachers believed that they learned the most from teachers with whom they were less familiar—especially people from different specialty areas—since it forced them to be especially articulate and reflective about the nature of their learning objectives and instructional plans.

Teachers expected different things from Supportive Supervision. Some participants sought *direct feedback* in the form of ideas and suggestions:

> I want them to be able to offer me ideas. I don't want it to be all self-generated. You can ask me what I think, but when I come to you and I say, "I've tried this, this, this, and this; it didn't work," I want you to watch the situation and see if you have any other ideas.

Others expected to benefit through their reflection during the *process* of working closely with another teacher. One teacher began to develop a better understanding of her own practice by trying to explain her instructional objectives to her coach:

> It was a real positive experience. I think it really opened my eyes to really stop and think. . . . Because I began to realize—I could hear it—as it was coming out [of my mouth]. But I see it's kind of gone on now without talking.

This teacher learned a great deal from the cognitive coaching experience, but not through suggestions made by the coach. Instead, she learned through the process of reflection that was necessary in order for her to articulate her ideas to her colleague. Thus, although it appeared that their conversation consisted of one teacher explaining objectives to another, it was really a reciprocal interaction made possible by their mutual endeavor to make sense of the teacher's instructional objectives and the means for achieving those objectives.

THE REVISED VERSION OF SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION

By June 1, 1992, pilot participants had reached a consensus that supervision and evaluation were two different things and that they needed to be treated separately. There were also more challenges to administrative supervision. It was acknowledged that the administrators were ultimately responsible for evaluation of teachers, but more and more teachers began to suggest that teachers should be free to choose their coaches and that those coaches could come from the ranks of teachers as well as from among department chairs and administrators.

When a group of representatives from the pilot teams was convened in August 1992 to rewrite the Supportive Supervision document, they agreed that the purpose of Supportive Supervision was to promote teacher autonomy. However, they decided not to use the term *autonomy* within the new document because many people interpreted autonomy as meaning teachers working independently, rather than as the pilot participants intended—teachers becoming self-directing, self-evaluating, and self-correcting within a collaborative relationship.

Through the revision process, the Supportive Supervision Model was condensed into three "options":

> *Self-Directed Supervision* is the ultimate goal of the Supportive Supervision Model. It is based on the individual teacher's reflection on instructional effectiveness and the personal desire to become more effective for students each day. Collaborative support from colleagues for each individual's professional growth plan is essential.
>
> *Directive Supervision* is intended to involve a teacher and administrative supervisor in a collaborative process of planning and support to foster more effective instruction and more self-control of professional growth.
>
> *Intensive Supervision* is the "intensive care" option in the Supportive Supervision Model. It is the response to career threatening difficulties that require the concentrated attention of the teacher, the administration, and the union.[21]

Figure 1 presents a more detailed explanation of these options and the procedures that they involved.

Self-Directed Supervision was described by the revision committee as the option in which the majority of teachers would be working. The question of movement from one phase of the model to another was resolved by the establishment of an unwritten expectation that all tenured teachers would enter the model in the Self-Directed option and remain there unless their principal assigned them to Intensive Supervision. Self-Directed Supervision provided the least amount of structure and provided teachers with the most ability to self-direct and self-evaluate. Teachers could choose their coaching partner, and they would also write their

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The Supportive Supervision Model (August 1992), p. 2.

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Figure 1. Supportive Supervision Procedural Requirements

Self-Directed Option		Directive Option		Intensive Option	
Teacher	*Administrator*	*Teacher*	*Administrator*	*Teacher*	*Administrator*
					Initiation Letter
				Initial Conference	Initial Conference
		Collaborative Planning Conference	Collaborative Planning Conference	Collaborative Planning Conference	Collaborative Planning Conference
Professional Portfolio	Option to Review and Comment	Professional Portfolio		Professional Portfolio	
● Professional Growth Plan ● Data Collection ● Informal Mid-Year Self-Evaluation ● Data Collection ● End-of-Year Self-Evaluation Report (June 1)	Conference for collaboration may be requested by teacher or administrator at any point in the process	● Professional Growth Plan ● Data Collection ● Informal Mid-Year Self-Evaluation ● Data Collection ● End-of-Year Self-Evaluation Report (June 1)		● Professional Growth Plan ● Data Collection ● Informal Mid-Year Self-Evaluation ● Data Collection ● End-of-Year Self-Evaluation Report (June 1)	
			Contact Reports (Two per semester)		Contact Reports (Two per semester)
			Mid-Year Evaluation Report		Mid-Year Evaluation Report
		Mid-Year Conference	Mid-Year Conference	Mid-Year Conference	Mid-Year Conference
			Contact Reports (Two per semester)		Contact Reports (Two per semester)
			End-of-Year Evaluation Report (June 30)		End-of-Year Evaluation Report (June 30)
		End-of-Year Conference (June 30)	End-of-Year Conference (June 30)	End-of-Year Conference (June 30)	End-of-Year Conference (June 30)

SOURCE: *Supportive Supervision Model*, August 1992, page 12.

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own annual evaluation report. (The report would require the principal's comments and signature before being placed in the personnel file.)

Intensive Supervision would be a highly structured and formal option in which the administrator would serve as the supervisor for any teacher who experienced "career threatening difficulties." Principals would retain responsibility for assigning teachers to Intensive Supervision; however, they would be required to provide documented reasons for such assignment. Following the assignment of a teacher to Intensive Supervision, a team consisting of the teacher in question, the principal, the superintendent, and representatives of the teachers union would develop strategies and timelines aimed at helping the teacher to improve in the deficient areas. This team would monitor and assess the progress or lack of progress made by the teacher and would ultimately determine the fate of the teacher—the options being to reassign the teacher back to the self-directed mode, to counsel the teacher out of the district or out of the profession, or to initiate dismissal procedures.

Directive Supervision was designed for those teachers who needed to work more closely with their administrator or a designate of the administrator in a collaborative arrangement. It was assumed that this option would be reserved for nontenured teachers. This option was more structured than Self-Directed Supervision, requiring a minimum number of contact reports and two evaluation reports each year. The goal would be to prepare the nontenured teacher for the Self-Directed option by coaching her or him toward becoming self-directing and self-evaluating.

Regardless of the option, all evaluation reports were to be narrative. The Intensive and Directive Supervision options required both the teacher and the supervisor to write reports, and both reports were to be placed in the teacher's personnel file. All options required teachers to compile professional portfolios including a professional growth plan, data collected about progress toward goals, reflections, evaluations, and any other data the teacher wished to include, such as notes from conferences, lesson plans, and samples of student work. The teacher would maintain possession and control of the portfolio, but would have to make it available to the administrator when requested. Evaluation reports were the only contents of the portfolio that had to be placed in the teacher's personnel file.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Supportive Supervision began as an attempt to engage teachers in genuine reflection about their classroom practice, but its evolution produced another purpose—a softening of the hierarchy of supervision. Three important implications for the democratization of supervision arise from the Supportive Supervision experience in Pleasant Valley. The first focuses on the changing roles and relationships between teachers and between teachers and administrators within collegial supervision models; the second is related to the coaching metaphors employed within supervisory arrangements; and the third is concerned with the relationship between the supervision and evaluation processes.

Changing Supervisory Roles and Relationships

The democratization of supervision means that the traditional hierarchical notion of supervision is being replaced by a concept that distributes supervisory authority more evenly between administrators and teachers. In Supportive Supervision this applies especially for competent tenured teachers in the Self-Directed option.

First, Supportive Supervision focuses on professional growth rather than on accountability. Accountability-based models of supervision tend to measure teacher performance against a set of criteria that have been identified as characteristics of effective teachers. The supervisor or administrator is in charge of the measurement or evaluation. The teacher may respond but otherwise must accept the assessment of the superior. Supportive Supervision, however, places teachers in charge of their professional growth within the Self-Directed option; within the Directive option professional growth becomes a collaborative responsibility between the teacher and the supervisor. Thus, decision-making authority is much more broadly distributed. Accountability is not ignored within the Supportive Supervision model, but it becomes accountability for professional growth. Accountability, in the traditional sense of meeting minimal standards of competency, is confined to the Intensive Supervision option, and it is applied to a small percentage of the teaching population whose competence may be in question.

Second, Supportive Supervision provides for self-evaluation by the teacher. All options require the teacher to write mid-year or year-end evaluation reports. The Intensive and Directive options require both the teacher and the supervisor to write evaluations. Both evaluations are placed in the teacher's personnel file. Within the Self-Directed option, the teacher is responsible for writing the evaluation report, and the administrator may comment on the report. This reverses the previous top-down procedure whereby the administrator wrote the report and the teacher responded to the report. Thus, Supportive Supervision provides more opportunity and responsibility for teachers to become involved in determining the direction for their professional growth and in evaluating their progress.[22]

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[22] Many readers will argue that what the self-directed teacher writes is not truly an evaluation. That debate is a subject for a future article. For the purpose of this article, it is assumed that self-evaluation reports are genuine forms of evaluation.

Supportive Supervision provides teachers with a greater sense of power and control over the supervisory process. It is no longer assumed that supervision is the sole domain of administrators. Within the Self-Directed option, teachers have the opportunity to choose their supervisor, and teachers tend to choose other teachers to work with in a collegial arrangement, replacing previous administrative supervisors. Teachers tend to use the following criteria when selecting colleagues with whom they will work: personal trust that the colleague will be nonjudgmental and will maintain confidentiality, and respect for the colleague's professional ability.

The shift from accountability for conformity to a set of prescriptive criteria to accountability for professional growth is one with which teachers can identify. It means that teachers are empowered to select and pursue self-selected styles of teaching toward the goal of improving their instructional skills. It does not threaten teacher beliefs about what constitutes good teaching practice. This may be positive in that teachers, given greater freedom from the threat of criticism, may be more open to talk about their teaching styles and strategies and may therefore be more likely to develop new beliefs about good practice. On the other hand, such freedom to pursue personal styles may provide a convenient excuse for some teachers to avoid examination of their practice.

Coaching Metaphors

Teachers in Supportive Supervision are not actually choosing a supervisor. Instead they are selecting a "coach." The distinction is important. Supervision implies a one-way flow of feedback to the teacher from the supervisor in a summative manner. Coaching is also a highly judgmental process, but it tends to be more formative than summative. Coaches work at improving skills and techniques over a long period of time and provide continuous opportunities for practice. It is assumed that mistakes will be made, but those mistakes are considered part of the learning process.

Although Supportive Supervision uses a coaching metaphor, it is important to recognize the subtle implications of that metaphor. Coaching within Supportive Supervision more closely resembles the relationship between a professional tennis player and a coach than the relationship between a professional football player and a coach. The professional tennis player hires a coach. Therefore, the coach does not have the authority to dismiss or trade the player as would be the case in a team sport such as football. The player is in ultimate control. It is assumed that the player is a talented professional who will improve with appropriate coaching. If the coaching arrangement does not succeed, it is the coach who may be dismissed or replaced. Such is the case within Supportive Supervision. Because the teachers have the power to select a coach, they also have the right to dismiss and reselect their coach. If a teacher does not benefit from a particular coaching arrangement, it is assumed that the coaching relationship is not an appropriate one and that a different coaching arrangement will be more successful.

Teachers working in collegial supervisory relationships may use two different metaphors of coaching. Some seek the direct feedback and suggestions that are synonymous with the tennis coaching metaphor. Such is the case with the teacher who stated, "I don't want it to be all self-generated." Although these teachers seek the control that comes with the ability to choose their coaches, they prefer to retain the traditional unidirectional flow of ideas.

However, for other teachers, coaching under Supportive Supervision goes beyond the tennis metaphor. When these teachers select coaches, they assume that they will be working in a reciprocal relationship. Each will serve as coach for the other. Feedback is two-directional, although the reciprocity may result from the reflective process rather than through explicit suggestions from the coach, as in the case of the teacher who explained, "I began to realize—I could hear it—as it was coming out." Not only can coaches learn *from* each other, but they learn *with* each other. Not only are teachers gaining a "coach," they are simultaneously developing a collegial relationship. The partners recognize that they may learn by being a coach as they observe other teachers and listen to them talk about their practice, and they also realize that they may learn through the process of being coached. Thus, coaching between teachers takes on a new meaning. Supportive Supervision implies a unique reciprocal coaching relationship.

The Relationship Between Supervision and Evaluation

The transition from hierarchical to more horizontal forms of supervision appears to manifest itself, partly, in the separation of *supervision* (defined as a formative process that emphasizes collegial examination of teaching and learning) from *evaluation* (defined as a summative process that focuses on assessing the competence of teachers). Indeed, many neo-progressives call for the complete separation of supervision and evaluation.[23]

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[23] See Keith Acheson and Meredith Gall, *Techniques in the Clinical Supervision of Teachers: Preservice and Inservice Applications*, 2nd ed. (New York: Longman, 1987); Arthur Costa and Robert Garmston, "Reviewing the Difference Between Supervision and Evaluation," in *Better Teaching Through Instructional Supervision: Policy and Practice*, compiled by Kenneth Tye and Arthur Costa (Sacramento, CA: California School Boards Association, 1986); Daniel Duke, "Developing Teacher Evaluation Systems That Promote Professional Growth," *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education* 4 (1990): 131–144; Noreen Garman, Carl Glickman, Madeline Hunter, and Nelson Haggerson, "Conflicting Conceptions of Clinical Supervision and the Enhancement of Professional Growth and Renewal: Point and Counterpoint," *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* 2, no. 2 (1987): 152–177.

However, the experience of redesigning teacher supervision and evaluation in Pleasant Valley Central School District indicates that supervision and evaluation are not easily separated in practice. When supervisors also have the authority and the responsibility for evaluation, teachers are unsure whether the two processes can be separated. Formal evaluation reports, they believe, are likely to be influenced by the informal supervisory contacts that occur throughout the year. Researchers offer divergent replies to Pleasant Valley's dilemma. One body of researchers argues that the two functions of supervision and evaluation can be separated provided they are performed by different persons.[24] Others argue that it is possible for the same person to be both supervisor and evaluator.[25]

The Pleasant Valley response to this problem within the Supportive Supervision Model is to treat supervision and evaluation as separate, but related, processes. The processes are most distinct in the Self-Directed option, where teachers and their coaches engage in supervisory (or coaching) interactions throughout the school year, but evaluation is something that occurs at the end of the year and is completed by the teacher with input from the administrator. The supervisor and the evaluator are different persons. It is assumed that the data gathered during the coaching interactions, as well as other data collected for the teacher's portfolio, will form the basis of the teacher's evaluation report. Formally, then, supervision and evaluation are separate, but linked.

However, the problems associated with traditional superordinate/subordinate relationships may not be eliminated by theoretically separating supervision and evaluation. Teachers may perceive collegial supervision as an extension of the traditional superordinate/subordinate relationships. Teachers in Pleasant Valley report that they look for partners who are "nonjudgmental"—who struggle to *understand* what the teacher intends to accomplish and, in the process, force the teacher to *clarify* his or her own thinking. The fact that "confidentiality" is another quality that teachers look for in a collegial coach indicates that teachers acknowledge the inevitability of informal peer review. Other studies have shown that teachers are keenly aware that their colleagues make judgments about their competence even when teacher isolation is the norm.[26] Teachers realize that supervision (or coaching) and evaluation (or judgmentalism) are not easily separated. What teachers are looking for, then, are colleagues who fall within an acceptable range of judgmentalism. The parameters of what is acceptable is a matter that the teacher personally determines. For this reason, the issue of choosing coaches is important to teachers engaging in collegial forms of supervision.

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[24] See Keith Acheson and Meredith Gall, *Techniques in the Clinical Supervision of Teachers: Preservice and Inservice Applications*, 2nd ed. (New York: Longman, 1987); Carolyn Clarke and Joe Richardson, "Peer Clinical Supervision: A Collegial Approach" (paper presented at the annual conference of the National Council of States on Inservice Education, November 1986); Richard Williams, "The Role of the School Board: Linking the Professional and Political Worlds of Clinical Supervision," in *Better Teaching Through Instructional Supervision: Policy and Practice*, compiled by Kenneth Tye and Arthur Costa (Sacramento, CA: California School Boards Association, 1986).

[25] See Arthur Costa and Robert Garmston, "Reviewing the Difference Between Supervision and Evaluation," in *Better Teaching Through Instructional Supervision: Policy and Practice*, compiled by Kenneth Tye and Arthur Costa (Sacramento, CA: California School Boards Association, 1986); Thomas Ellis, Mary Jensen, Philip Piele, and Stuart Smith, "Improving School Effectiveness Through Reform of Teacher Selection Practices and Collegial Observation of Classroom Performance," in *Trends and Issues in Education*, ed. Erwin Flaxman (January 1987), ERIC document ED 281902; Jerrold Hopfengardner and Ronald Walker, "Collegial Support: An Alternative to Principal-led Supervision of Instruction," *NASSP Bulletin* 68, no. 471 (1984); R. Scott Pfeifer, *Variations on a Theme: An Analysis of Peer Involvement in Teacher Evaluation* (paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC, April 1987).

Complicating the problem of separating supervision and evaluation is the fact that teachers do not always perceive themselves as equals in relation to their colleagues. Elementary teachers in Pleasant Valley perceive that their work is not as highly regarded as the work of their peers at the high school level. And students who return to Pleasant Valley as teachers find it difficult to shed the hierarchical student-teacher relationship and develop collegial relationships with their former teachers. Thus, hierarchical relationships in education may be more than a function of formal authority. There may be informal hierarchies among teachers as well. This means that it may be possible to separate supervision and evaluation on a formal level, but at an informal level, their decoupling may be more problematic.

Supportive Supervision does not separate summative and formative evaluation so much as it differentiates between informal evaluation (informal and unrecorded judgments made about teaching) and formal evaluation (written institutional evaluations made for the purposes of personnel decisions). Supportive Supervision attempts to emphasize informal evaluation that leads to teacher growth and to give formal evaluation for personnel purposes a necessary but secondary role. Informal evaluation continues throughout the school year and results in teacher growth, while formal evaluation occurs at the end of the year and consists of the teacher's documentation of what was achieved through the informal process.

This differentiation between informal and formal evaluation seems to reinforce the transition from hierarchical to horizontal supervision. However, this transition may be more apparent than real from the teachers' viewpoint. Teachers are aware that opening their practice to other teachers makes them vulnerable to the judgment of their colleagues. This

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[26] See, for example, Patricia Ashton, Rodman Webb, and Nancy Doda, *A Study of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy* (University of Florida, Final Report, vol. 1, 1982), ERIC document [illegible] 834.

is why they are careful in their selection of coaches. Therefore, it remains questionable whether changing roles within the supervisory process will effectively alter the established hierarchical myths about supervision.

CONCLUSIONS

Supportive Supervision represents an attempt to soften the hierarchical relationship implied by the term *supervision* by formally redistributing supervisory authority between administrators and teachers. The metaphor of coaching that is emerging from the Self-Directed Supervision option of Supportive Supervision may represent movement toward the extinction of the superordinate/subordinate relationship implied by the very notion of supervision, so that supervisory situations evolve into relationships between reciprocal coaches rather than between coach and trainee. Perhaps it is a step toward the removal of "super" from the concept of "supervision." Does Supportive Supervision perhaps also remove the very notion of supervision (a summative personnel-oriented function), at least for competent teachers?

Supportive Supervision does not relieve administrators of responsibility for ensuring the competence of teachers, nor are teachers excused from accountability for their competence in the classroom. The Directive Supervision and the Intensive Supervision options provide for accountability-oriented supervision. Clearly these options are included within the model as protection against the eventuality that some nontenured teachers will not be suited for the teaching profession or that some competent tenured teachers will become incompetent. Yet, it is also clear that Pleasant Valley Central School District assumes that the majority of its teachers are competent professionals who need opportunities to grow and improve their skills as professionals. For these teachers, a growth-oriented approach to supervision is more appropriate than the more traditional model.

However, the replacement of administrative supervisors by teacher coaches does not necessarily remove the judgmental implications of former hierarchical arrangements. Collegial supervisory relationships may be just as judgmental as hierarchical supervisory relationships. The former is an informal mode of judgmentalism, but no less powerful from the teacher's point of view. Therefore, will the rituals of a more hierarchical model of supervision actually disappear, or will they simply be disguised and transferred to a different set of relationships within the organization?

Other questions include whether efforts to soften the formal supervisory hierarchy will actually deflect attention away from Supportive Supervision's original intent (teacher growth), so that development of nonhierarchical supervision becomes an end in itself and teacher growth is forgotten or de-emphasized. If Supportive Supervision does lead to teacher growth, what forms of growth will result? Will Supportive Supervision tackle significant issues within teaching and learning? Ultimately, will teacher growth influence teacher-student relationships and/or student learning?

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New Roles for Staff Developers

The Practice of Reflection: An Essential Learning Process

by Joellen Killion and Cindy Harrison

The changing role of staff developers from trainer to organization development specialist requires that staff developers expand their current repertoire of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. There are no simple rules to guide this new work. Little time and few resources are available for staff developers to retrain while they struggle to continue serving their clients. Fortunately, reflection is a tool staff developers can use to extend their knowledge base, critically analyze their practices, and appropriately align their strategies to new situations.

While reflection has become a "hot topic" among educators, it is an essential learning process that has helped us become more competent in the areas of facilitation, consultation, conflict management, organizational diagnosis, group development, shared decision making, and other related areas.

Reflection is the act of analyzing our actions, decisions, or products by focusing on what we did or are doing and learning lessons that can be applied to new situations. Reflection may occur in three ways. Reflection-on-action occurs after the fact as we examine our actions and practices. Reflection-for-action is the generation or clarification of the contextual knowledge and skills that are so critical in organization development work.

Reflection is a tool staff developers can use to extend their knowledge base, critically analyze their practices, and appropriately align their strategies with each situation.

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Reflection-in-action is the mental processing of actions as they occur. It is a more difficult process to describe. It involves a sensitivity and responsiveness to the signals, cues, and feelings we observe in ourselves. Reflection-in-action includes describing to group members what we are experiencing and thinking so they can "see" our processing and help us make meaning from it. It also involves acknowledging these internal and external cues by labeling them, jotting notes to ourselves, and pausing to make conscious decisions.

To be successful, staff developers must match their strategies to the situation, which requires an awareness of the particular variables present in each situation. This awareness includes an understanding of the unique characteristics of the clients, their internal and external communication patterns and networks, the management policies and practices, the climate, and the organization's culture, among other attributes.

Joellen Killion & Cindy Harrison

Because each situation in which organization development specialists work is unique, reflection becomes critical. When we as organization development specialists reflect on what we do in each situation and learn from these discoveries, we are able to handle new, diverse, and complex responsibilities with greater ease.

Reflection requires two things: conscious metacognitive processing (an awareness of what information we perceive and how we process that information) and time to reflect. We suggest that reflection become a regular part of each professional's practice. Establishing routines to make time for reflection, using trusted colleagues as sounding boards, and keeping journals are all helpful.

Reflection is more productive when guided by a process. As we will discuss below, this process might include specific questions to be answered. It might also take the form of a dialogue with a colleague who stimulates our thinking with questions and who listens without judging. Free writing in journals or responding to specific questions offers a permanent record of our reflection that can be

cont. on page 4

re-read, highlighted, or used as a reference much like a textbook. These techniques are useful for reflection-on-action and reflection-for-action.

In our work we attempt to be more conscious of our decision making by generating and considering the consequences of possible options before selecting one. We have found it helpful to focus our attention on a few questions rather than many. The questions below help guide our reflection process.

Reflection-on-action

1. How do I feel about the situation?
2. What went well?
3. What did not go as well as I expected?
4. What options did I consider as I selected my behavior/action?
5. What option did I choose?
6. How did I know what I chose to do was best in this situation? What did I base that on (i.e., theory, experience, intuition, etc.)?
7. How did I know that another behavior/action would not be appropriate?
8. What made this situation unusual?
9. What might I have done differently?

Reflection-in-action

1. **What cues from the person or group do I see that tell me how they are responding to my behaviors/actions?**
2. What assumptions or inferences am I making?
3. What options are available? What are the possible consequences of each? What would work best in this situation?
4. What principles/theories are guiding me?
5. What is unique about this situation?
6. **What level of direction/specificity/structure is best here?**

Reflection-for-action

1. What did I learn that I can apply in other situations?
2. How did I alter my knowledge, theories, or attitudes as a result of this experience?
3. What did I learn from this situation that confirms my intuition?
4. What will I remember from this situation?
5. If I were in a similar situation again, how would I behave?

Reflection is an essential learning process that will help staff developers, no matter what their job titles, meet the challenge of constantly changing roles and responsibilities.

Researcher Recounts a Short History of a Reform That Failed

Is a school reform successful or not? The answer sometimes depends on whom you ask, a recent article suggests.

Writing in the November 1991 issue of the Harvard Educational Review, *Marjorie Godlin Roemer, the director of freshman English at the University of Cincinnati, recounts an attempt to develop a method of assessing writing through portfolios in the Cincinnati Public Schools. She considered the effort a failure, but teachers involved in the project saw it as a success.*

The problem, she writes, was in the different perspectives of the school-system "insiders"—teachers and school administrators—and "outsiders"—the university researchers. The insiders hoped that the experiment would result in concrete products—the new method of assessment. Since it did, the teachers and administrators regarded the experiment positively.

But the researchers intended the project to engage teachers in a discussion of their goals and expectations for students, a conversation that never occurred. As a result, Ms. Roemer writes, the portfolios fell short of their potential for empowering teachers.

"A potentially liberating design was domesticated in a strictly hierarchical, utilitarian fashion," she writes. "To the extent that much reform follows this pattern, it is often about change without difference."

A better way of bringing teachers and university researchers together, Ms. Roemer suggests, is along the lines of the National Writing Project, which provides educators an opportunity—away from the daily pressures of the classroom—to reflect on their practice.

Ms. Roemer discussed her article, and its implications for school-university collaborations, with Associate Editor Robert Rothman.

Q. Why do you think the "insiders" and the "outsiders" had such divergent perspectives on the purposes and the outcomes of the project?

A. I think it was our position, our orientation.

I think public-school teachers are working under trying conditions, and they really don't have the luxury to reflect, to experiment, to explore. They feel pressed. . . . The kind of conceptions some of us [university researchers] had wasn't feasible. University researchers could afford the luxury of a reflective stance.

Another piece [of the difference] was the antagonism and suspicion that developed [over the course of the project]. There was a sense among high-school teachers that people can't know what pressures they labor under.

Q&A

A conversation with Marjorie Roemer

Q. Isn't it possible that you are selling the reform short, and that the project may be successful, over time, as the teachers implement the portfolios?

A. It's possible. Some writing will get done, and some teachers said students really are taking writing seriously. There is some real change there.

I suppose that the project fell far short of my desires for it. I would have liked the process itself to create something empowering for the teachers. I would have liked it to be their project, in a richer way than it was.

But something in the experience drained what meaning there could be. That's irrecoverable.

Q. Would the divergence in perspectives be true in any collaboration, or can you see ways of bringing the two groups together?

A. I ended by feeling that, for me, it would be more satisfying to work with the National Writing Project model. . . . That calls for a break in the routine, to build a new community to reconceptualize [teaching].

There might be circumstances where one could overcome the inside-outside split. We didn't give enough thought to what the problems might be, and ways around them.

It would take more time, more money, and more trust in teachers.

Q. In the examples of successful collaboration you cite, you write that there is time for "thoughtful consideration of practice." In those instances, is there evidence that the reforms are implemented in a way that produces "real change?"

A. I think so. You have to change the way teachers think. That's what didn't happen [in the Cincinnati experiment]. They got a process to monitor student performance. We didn't see changed consciousness.

Q. There is a trend now of teachers' conducting their own research. Does that help merge the differences between the insiders' and outsiders' perspectives, or do such efforts rob experiments of the perspective a university researcher might provide?

A. I'd like to think there is a place for university-school collaboration. But I am very much in support of the teacher-as-researcher movement.

I want university people helping, not being the experts, the repositories of knowledge. That was my frustration. That was the way we were perceived, whether we liked it or not. ■

FORUM

A Paradigm Shift in Staff Development

by Dennis Sparks
Executive Director

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During the past 20 years it has gone by many names — inservice education, staff development, professional development, and human resource development. But whatever it was called, it too often was essentially the same thing — educators (usually teachers) sitting relatively passively while an "expert" "exposed" them to new ideas or "trained" them in new practices. The success of this endeavor was typically judged by a "happiness quotient" that measured participants' satisfaction with the experience and their assessment regarding its usefulness in their work.

Fortunately, all of this is at long last being swept away by irresistible forces that are currently at work in education. History teaches us the power of a transforming idea, an alteration in world view so profound that all that follows is changed forever. Such a paradigm shift is now rapidly transforming the discipline of "staff development." (I will use this term throughout because our professional language has not yet caught up with the paradigm shift that is described below.)

Three powerful ideas are currently altering the shape of this nation's schools and the "staff development" that occurs within them. The first is the notion of *results-driven education* which judges success not by the courses students take or the grades they receive, but by what they actually know and can do as a result of their time in school. Results-driven education will require that teachers and administrators alter their attitudes (e.g., from grades should be based on the bell curve to the belief that virtually all students can acquire the school's valued outcomes provided they are given sufficient time and appropriate instruction) and acquire new instructional knowledge and skills.

Results-driven education for students will require results-driven staff development for educators. Staff development's success will be judged primarily not by how many teachers and administrators participate in staff development programs or how they perceive its value, but by whether it alters instructional behavior in a way that benefits students. The goal of staff development and other improvement efforts is becoming improved performance — improved performance on the part of students, staff, and the organization.

The second transforming idea is that of systems thinking, which recognizes the complex, interdependent interrelationships among the various parts of the system. When the parts of a system come together they form something that is bigger and more complex than those individual parts. "Systems thinkers" are individuals who are able to see how these parts constantly influence one another in ways which can support or hinder improvement efforts. Because educational leaders typically have not thought systemically, reform has been approached in a piecemeal fashion.

An important aspect of systems thinking is that changes in one part of the system — even relatively minor changes — can have significant effects on other parts of the system, either positively or negatively. To complicate the situation, these effects may not become obvious for months or even years, which may lead observers to miss the link between the two events. For instance, graduation requirements may be increased, teachers may be trained in some new process, or decision-making decentralized, with little thought given to how these changes influence other parts of the system. As a result, "improvements" in one area may produce unintended consequences in another part of the system (e.g., increasing graduation requirements in science without appropriate changes in assessment, curriculum and instructional methods may increase the dropout rate).

To address this issue, Peter Senge, author of *The Fifth Discipline*, encourages organizational leaders to identify points of high leverage in the system — points that he refers to as "trim tabs." Change introduced into these areas can have a positive ripple effect throughout the organization (e.g., a change in assessment strategies may have a significant effect on curriculum and instruction).

The third powerful idea is constructivism. Constructivists believe that learners build knowledge structures rather than merely receive them from teachers. In this view knowledge is not simply transmitted from teacher to student, but instead constructed in the mind of the learner. From a constructivist perspective it is critical that teachers model appropriate behavior, guide student activities, and provide various forms of examples rather than use common instructional practices that emphasize telling and directing.

Constructivist teaching will be best learned through constructivist staff development. Rather than receiving "knowledge" from "experts" in training sessions, teachers and administrators will collaborate with peers, researchers, and their own students to make sense of the teaching/learning process in their own contexts. Staff development from a constructivist perspective will include activities such as action research, conversations with peers about the beliefs and assumptions that guide their instruction, and reflective practices like journal keeping — activities which many educators may not even view as staff development.

Results-driven education, systems thinking, and constructivism are producing profound changes in how staff development is conceived and implemented. Some of the most important of these changes are:

• *From individual development to individual development and organization development.* Too often we have expected dramatic changes in schools based solely on staff development programs intended to help individual teachers and administrators do their jobs more effectively. An important lesson from the past few years, however, has been that improvements in individual performance alone are insufficient to produce the results we desire.

It is now clear that success for all students depends upon both the learning of individual school employees and improvements in the capacity of the organization to solve problems and renew itself. While the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of individuals must continually be addressed, quality improvement expert W. Edwards Deming estimates that 85% of the barriers to improvement reside in the organization's structure and processes, not in the performance of individuals. For instance, asking teachers to hold higher expectations for students within a school that tracks students pits teachers against the system in which they work. As systems thinking has taught us, unless individual learning and organizational changes are addressed simultaneously and support one another, the gains made in one area may be canceled by continuing problems in the other.

• *From fragmented, piecemeal improvement efforts to staff development driven by a clear, coherent strategic plan for the school district, each school, and for the departments that serve schools.* Educational experts such as Seymour Sarason and Michael Fullan have criticized schools for their fragmented approach to change. School improvement too often has been based on fad rather than a clear, compelling vision of the school system's future. This, in turn, has led to one-shot staff development workshops with no thought given to follow-up nor how this technique fits in with those that were taught in previous years. At its worst, teachers are asked to implement poorly understood innovations with little support and assistance, and before they are able to approach mastery, the school has moved on to another area.

An orientation to outcomes and systems thinking has led to strategic planning at the district, school, and department levels. Clear, compelling mission statements and measurable objectives expressed in terms of student outcomes give guidance to the type of staff development activities that would best serve district and school goals. In turn, district offices such as staff development and curriculum see themselves as service agencies for schools. This comprehensive approach to change makes certain that all aspects of the system (e.g., assessment, curriculum, instruction, parent involvement) are working in tandem toward a manageable set of outcomes that are valued throughout the system.

• *From district-focused to school-focused approaches to staff development.* While districtwide awareness and skill-building programs sometimes have their place, more attention today is being directed at helping schools meet their improvement goals. Schools sets their goals both to assist the school system in achieving its long-term objectives and to address challenges unique to their students' needs.

School improvement efforts in which the entire staff seeks incremental annual improvement related to a set of common objectives (e.g., helping all students become better problem solvers, increasing the number of students who participate in a voluntary community service program to 100%) over a three to five year span are viewed as the key to significant reform. As a result, more learning activities are designed and implemented by school faculties, with the district's staff development department providing technical assistance and functioning as a service center to support the work of the schools.

• *From training that one attends away from the job as the primary delivery system for staff development to multiple forms of job-embedded learning.* Critics have long argued that too much of what passes as staff development is "sit and get" in which educators are passive recipients of received wisdom. Likewise, a great deal of staff development could be thought of as "go and get" because "learning" has typically meant leaving the job to attend a workshop or other event.

While well-designed training programs followed by coaching will continue to be the preferred method for the development of certain skills, school employees will also learn through such diverse means as action research, participating in study groups or small-group problem solving, observing peers, journal writing, and through involvement in improvement processes (e.g., participation in curriculum development, school improvement planning).

• *From staff developers who function primarily as trainers to those who provide consultation, planning, and facilitation services, as well as training.* Staff developers are more frequently called on today to facilitate meetings or to assist various work groups (e.g., a school faculty, the superintendent's cabinet, a school improvement team) solve problems or develop long-range plans. While staff developers will continue to provide training in instructional areas, results-driven education and systems thinking have placed teachers, administrators, and school employees in new roles (e.g., team leader, strategic planning team member) for which training in areas such as conducting effective meetings is required for their successful performance.

• *From staff development provided by one or two departments to staff development as a critical function and major responsibility performed by all administrators and teacher leaders.* Job-embedded staff development means that superintendents, assistant superintendents, curriculum supervisors, principals, and teacher leaders, among others, must see themselves as teachers of adults and view the development of others as one of their most important responsibilities. Individuals who perform these roles are increasingly being held accountable for their performance as planners and implementers of various forms of staff development.

As responsibility for staff development has been spread throughout the school system, the role of the staff development department has become even more important. Staff development departments are assisting teachers and administrators by offering training and ongoing support in acquiring the necessary knowledge and skills to assume their new responsibilities, by providing one-to-one coaching of these individuals in their new roles, and by facilitating meetings that are best led by individuals who are outside that particular group, among other responsibilities.

• *From teachers as the primary recipients of staff development to continuous improvement in performance for everyone who affects student learning.* To meet the educational challenges of the 21st Century, everyone who affects student learning must continually upgrade his or her skills — school board trustees, superintendents and other central office administrators, principals, teachers, the various categories of support staff (e.g., aides, secretaries, bus drivers, custodians), and parents and community members who serve on policy-making boards and planning committees.

• *From staff development as a "frill" that can be cut during difficult financial times to staff development as an essential and indispensable process without which schools cannot hope to prepare young people for citizenship and productive employment.* Both the development of school employees and significant changes in the organizations in which they work are required if schools are to adequately prepare students for life in a world that is becoming increasingly more complex. Fortunately, results-driven education and systems thinking provide us with the intellectual understanding and the means to create the necessary reforms.

The shifts described above are significant and powerful. They are essential to the creation of learning communities in which everyone — students, teachers, principals, and support staff — are both learners and teachers. All of the things described above will serve to unleash the most powerful source of success for all students, young people who are in the daily presence of adults who are passionately committed to their own life-long learning within organizations that are continually renewing themselves.

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The Staff Development Needs of Superintendents and Principals

A series of studies of staff development coordinators, superintendents, and principals provide insight into staff development needs of superintendents and principals.

MALCOLM KATZ

Because statewide political priorities have often been the first targets of educational reform (Kirst, 1987), staff developers at state and regional levels have felt the need to acquire data about local priorities to balance the views from the top. To provide that kind of data, assessments to discover the administrative needs of individual schools and of school districts have been carried out in Georgia since 1985.

A series of studies of staff development coordinators, principals, and superintendents are reported here. Results are presented, and implications for staff developers are proposed.

Studies of Administrative Needs

The Georgia Education Leadership Academy, the state-level agency responsible for the staff development of leadership personnel, annually has sponsored a series of studies that assess local administrative needs. These began with local superintendents in 1985, 1986, and 1987 (Katz, 1986, 1987a); principals in 1987 (Katz, 1987b); and staff development coordinators in 1988 (Katz, 1988).

The same survey instrument was used in each of these studies. Superintendents and staff development coordinators were asked to assess the administrative needs in their own school district, while principals were asked to rate administrative needs in their own school. The same instrument wa
used for superintendents, principals, an
staff development coordinators so th.
comparisons could be made as to the pe
ceptions of the need levels of the same s
of administrative task areas by these thr
professional groups.

The survey document developed at Ge
rgia Southern University by the author ar
colleagues listed 61 common administr
tive task areas at the district and scho
levels. Organized into six categories, the
task areas cover the daily and annual pr
fessional work activities of education
administrators. They also represent t
needs of staff developers who are involv
in the planning of inservice programs f
administrators. These six categories a
(a) organization and administration; (
management of students; (c) communic
tions management and public relations; (
management of facilities, services, a
finance; (e) management of instructi
and (f) personnel management.

Respondents were asked to rate each
the 61 items on a 0-4 point scale, with z
representing "no need" and 4 represent
a "high need." The results were compi
in two ways. First, a mean score was cal
lated for each of the 61 task areas, fr
which all task areas were ranked from
highest need level down to the low
Second, for each task area the percen
respondents that rated it as a "4" or h
need was determined. Thus, for each of

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61 task areas there is an indicator of its average level of perceived need (its rank by mean score) and an indicator of the "potency" of each need, (its rank by the percent of respondents who rated the task area as a high need)

The response rate in the 1987 study was 82.3% for superintendents (N = 153) and 70.8% for principals (N = 425). The response rate in the 1988 study of staff development coordinators was 83.5%, with 157 respondents. While this was the first such survey of staff development coordinators, the prior surveys using the same instrument for superintendents in 1985, 1986, and 1987, and for principals in 1987 demonstrated high reliability, both within the survey group (from one region of the state to another) and from year to year. For example, superintendent survey results for 1985, 1986, and 1987 showed that, of these 61 task areas, only twelve (12) comprised all of the needs ranked among the ten highest for those three years.

Results

The data from these studies provide important clues as to which problem areas in administration and supervision carry a higher or lower priority value for each group. Surveying all three professional groups instead of any one of them makes it possible to expand one's understanding of the data, to see the larger tableau because superintendents, principals, and staff development coordinators have such different vantage points from which to evaluate administrative needs.

To consider the results, the most pressing administrative needs of the staff development coordinators are discussed and then compared to those of superintendents and principals.

Top 20 Needs of Staff Developers

The top 20 administrative needs identified by staff development coordinators are displayed in Table 1. Table 1 shows in rank order the task areas perceived by staff development coordinators to be the 20 highest needs of the 61 on the survey instrument. The mean score for each is shown, as is the percent of respondents that rated each of the twenty needs as "4." This latter measure is an indicator of the potency of a need as it reflects only those respondents who rated it as a critical need.

When examining the top ten needs identified by the staff development coordinators, four types of needs are prevalent.

1. ***People needs.*** Interestingly, staff development coordinators (referred to as SDCs hereafter) found the task area of *staff morale and group dynamics* to be their highest ranked need. While this may seem a surprising choice in the face of the many specific instructional requirements of educational reform, it is likely that it was a direct result of the rapid changes and pressures that accompany reform (McDaniel, 1989). This same task area was also ranked among the top 10 needs by principals and superintendents in the 1987 surveys, the

Table 1

The 20 Administrative Needs Ranked Highest by Staff Development Coordinators (N = 157)

Rank	Need	Mean Score (0-4)	Percentage of Staff Development Coordinators Rating As A "4" (High Need)
1	Staff morale, group dynamics	3.23 (S.D. = .993)	50%
2	Evaluating program effectiveness, implementing changes	3.20 (S.D. = 1.02)	48%
3	Long, short term planning	3.10 (S.D. = .915)	39%
4	Knowledge of curriculum/instruction	3.09 (S.D. = .917)	39%
5	Instructional supervision	3.07 (S.D. = 1.17)	45%
6	Supervision, evaluation of staff	3.01 (S.D. = 1.28)	46%
7	Principal's role (in management of instruction)	2.90 (S.D. = 1.28)	43%
8	School climate, learning environment	2.78 (S.D. = 1.32)	33%
9	Knowledge/use of leadership techniques	2.78 (S.D. = 1.02)	27%
10	Interpersonal relationships, rapport	2.77 (S.D. = 1.19)	30%
11	School-parent communication	2.72 (S.D. = 1.00)	23%
12	School-staff communication	2.72 (S.D. = 1.07)	25%
13	Defined K-12 curriculum	2.70 (S.D. = 1.26)	29%
14	Organization for curriculum development	2.70 (S.D. = 1.10)	24%
15	Stress management	2.69 (S.D. = 1.26)	32%
16	Scheduling, lesson planning, time on task	2.67 (S.D. = 1.14)	24%
17	School-community communication	2.66 (S.D. = 1.13)	25%
18	Guidance and career planning	2.64 (S.D. = 1.09)	25%
19	Classroom management	2.64 (S.D. = 1.15)	25%
20	Computer and data processing	2.60 (S.D. = 1.17)	26%

last year during which those groups were surveyed (see Table 2). SDCs selected two additional task areas among their top ten needs that can be characterized as people-centered: No. 8 *school climate/learning environment* and No. 10 *interpersonal relations/rapport*.

Educational reform produces or at least accelerates problems that people experience within the organization. It is likely that the often bureaucratic, top-down process of state reform contributes to staff disequilibrium and anxiety (Bacharach & Conley, 1986).

2. ***Leadership needs.*** Instructional leadership was also an area of high need. Like principals and superintendents, SDCs viewed the *evaluation of program and the implementation of change* to be the second high rank. SDCs and administrators appear to believe that too little attention has been focused on program evaluation--that changes have been implemented (testing protocols, new state standards, course requirements) without accompanying plans to evaluate their outcomes.

Ranked 5th and 6th by SDCs, *instructional supervision* and the *supervision evaluation of staff* are task areas also perceived by principals and superintendents to be of high need (see Table 2). This perception may exist because Georgia teachers have undergone a shift from being among the least supervised in the nation to being among those most closely supervised.

3. ***Long and short-term planning.*** This refers to needs for strategic planning (2-5 years or more) and for annual planning involving goals, objectives, and priorities.

4. ***Knowledge of curriculum and instruction.*** This refers to needs in the administrator's knowledge base related to his/her role as an instructional leader in the areas of educational program and classroom teaching.

Differing Needs by Role

Table 2 displays the 10 highest ranked administrative needs identified by staff development coordinators, principals, and superintendents. The most striking feature of the comparison was the very high degree of convergence between SDCs and superintendents, and the contrasting lower level of agreement between SDCs and principals. SDCs and superintendents selected nine of the 10 task areas perceived as among the highest needs by the other. It is important to keep in mind that, while SDCs and superintendents do differ as to exact placement of task areas among their highest 10, they agree remarkably on the nine that are preeminent among all 61. The tenth, included by SDCs but not by superintendents, was school climate and learning environment. Superintendents, but not SDCs, ranked school-parent communication among their highest ten needs.

> ***Surveying all three professional groups instead of any one of them makes it possible to expand one's understanding of the data, to see the larger tableau because superintendents, principals, and staff development coordinators have such different vantage points from which to evaluate administrative needs.***

On the other hand, principals and SDCs concur on only four of their top-ten rankings. These were (a) staff morale and group dynamics, (b) evaluating program effectiveness and implementing changes, (c) instructional supervision, and (d) supervision, evaluation of staff.

It may not be surprising that SDCs and superintendents have such similar perceptions of needs. SDCs have district-wide responsibilities; their concerns derive significantly from their contacts with their supervisors (typically superintendents), from school boards, and also from the education reform act in Georgia that brought them into existence. To understand the strong differences between SDCs and principals, however, we need to look at the peculiar position of the principal in Georgia educational reform. Five of the 10 highest needs of principals were in the area of management; none of these management task areas appeared as high level needs to either SDCs or superintendents' top 10 needs.

It is fairly clear from these data that principals feel that they are at the focal point of the process and turmoil brought about by state reform which has been intensified by the recent spotlight on the principal as the key operative in school improvement. Because the mandates of reform are felt most tangibly at the building level (e.g., test results, teacher evaluation, accountability), they create for principals acute needs for improved management skills. It may be that superintendents and SDCs are not as involved in the change process in the stress-ridden, hands-on way that principals are.

Staff Development Implications

Based on the findings of these studies, a number of implications for staff development can be identified.

1. ***Design staff development programs for educational leaders around their high priority needs.*** Staff developers, principals, and superintendents agree that the following task areas are high needs: evaluating program effectiveness and implementing changes, supervision and evaluation of staff, instructional supervision, and staff morale and group dynamics. Staff development programs for principals and superintendents can be launched with confidence in these areas (at least in Georgia).

2. ***Have staff development programs attend to "people concerns" as well as to "content concerns".*** Concerns about staff morale, school climate, and interpersonal relationships are echoed by superintendents, principals, and SDCs. These areas lend themselves to direct approaches (workshops on school climate, for example) and indirect approaches. For instance, staff developers can assist superintendents and principals in *identifying up the processes of organizational development* such as how change is introduced (level of involvement, etc.) and the critical nature o communication between central office and

Table [illegible]

Comparing Ten Highest Ranked Administrative Needs of Three Professional Groups

Rank	Staff Development Coordinators (Katz, 1988) (N = 157)	Principals (Katz, 1987[illegible]) (N = [illegible])	Superintendents (Katz, 198[illegible]) (N = 1[illegible])
1	Staff morale, group dynamics	Evaluating program [illegible]	[illegible]
2	Evaluating program effectiveness/ implementing change	Stress management	[illegible]
3	Long-/short-term planning	Computers, data processing	Evaluating program effectiveness/ implementing change
4	Knowledge of curriculum/instruction	Legal consideration	Principal's role (in management/ instruction)
5	Instructional supervision	Supervision, evaluation of staff	Staff morale, group dynamics
6	Supervision, evaluation of staff	Instructional supervision	Knowledge of curriculum/instruction
7	Principal's role (in management/ instruction)	Time management	Knowledge/use of leadership techniques
8	School climate, learning environment	Inservice for staff (certified and classified)	Long-/short-term plan[illegible]
9	Knowledge/use of leadership techniques	Staff morale, group dynamics	Interpersonal relationship/ rapport
10	Interpersonal relationship, rapport	Classroom management	School [illegible] community [illegible]

schools, as well as within those units. State-level staff developers are in an especially critical position to respond to these issues as they apply to state-local relations.

3. ***Recognize that principals have unique staff development needs.*** Staff developers can be instrumental to improvement efforts at the school level by recognizing the unique needs of school principals. While legislators, education officials, and superintendents are advocates and supporters of educational reform, it is principals who feel themselves at the vortex of change. These men and women are seeking help in specific task areas that will make them more proficient at managing the instructional elements of school improvement. These task areas include stress management, computers and data processing, legal considerations, time management, and classroom management.

Staff developers can be instrumental to improvement efforts at the school level by recognizing the unique needs of school principals.

4. ***Ask whether staff developers are part of the solution or part of the problem.*** One of the surprises from these studies is the much higher ranking of the need for staff development given by principals and by superintendents than by staff development coordinators. For the task area "Inservice for staff (certified and classified)" principals ranked it at 8th, superintendents at 14th, and SDCs at 27th. Principals and superintendents do not view staff development as the intrusive, teacher-stealers that they once did (McLaughlin & Berman, 1977). Rather, they see staff development as important to the resolution of school-improvement problems.

At the same time, however, staff developers and principals agree on the primacy of relationship and communication needs. Some of these are constants of organizational life, some are made more acute by the reform movement, and some are clearly linked to staff development itself. Because resistance by teachers and others to inservice education has been a major problem area for principals, staff developers would do well to look carefully at the

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teacher involvement procedures in their programs, to better select the content of their programs, and to execute such programs at higher levels of performance and client satisfaction.

Summary and Conclusions

Assessments of administrative needs as perceived by the staff development coordinators of one state have revealed important areas of agreement and disagreement between their priorities and those of superintendents and principals. The survey results point to those areas of greatest and least need, thus providing an important indicator for staff development programs for school leaders that will find a ready response within local school systems and schools. Because SDCs are much more like superintendents than principals in the way they perceive administrative needs, SDCs will want to pay close attention to the special priority needs of principals. The reform movement has placed principals at the center of change, and their unique profile of needs reflects that placement.

Reference Note

Copies of the survey instrument or of more complete reports on needs as perceived by SDCs, superintendents, and principals can be obtained from the author.

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Teacher Evaluation: Six Prescriptions for Success

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1 Evaluation for Enhancing Instruction: Linking Teacher Evaluation and Staff Development

THOMAS L. MCGREAL

One of the few enduring initiatives in education is the often strident call for "new and improved" teacher evaluation systems. Whether the call for change is spurred by the angry reaction to some local problem, as in Elm Hills, or is provided by a legislated school-reform movement, the pressure to build better ways to evaluate classroom teachers is pervasive and consistent. Unfortunately, the pressure emerging from both of these settings is often driven by an urgency that does not allow or encourage the careful planning necessary for any change activity to succeed. While the outcome to the Harriet Halverson case was clearly unsatisfactory, it can be the impetus for generating the commitment and resources needed to address a number of issues linked to the teacher evaluation process. The first and most important task is to channel this energy from the negative focus of a "defensible" system to a more positive force that can be applied to the development of a plan in which teacher evaluation is but one ingredient.

Teacher Evaluation as Part of a Bigger Plan

One of the biggest problems Elm Hills faces is that the urgency for improved evaluation procedures is being driven by motives that can be det-

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rimental to the development of a productive and useful system. A recurring theme in almost all successful evaluation systems is the importance of establishing a clear understanding of the purposes of the system, which must then be reflected in procedures and processes (McGreal 1983, Murphy 1987, Wise and Darling-Hammond 1984). The Elm Hills administrators and board are calling for an evaluation system that will meet a relatively specific purpose—improving their ability to appropriately document and judge incompetent teaching so the district will never again be unable to dismiss a "bad" teacher. While this is a justifiable and acceptable function of an evaluation system, it is but one of a number of important purposes. In fact, the literature on successful evaluation gives it little support as an important or acceptable purpose (Harris 1986, Iwanicki 1981, McGreal 1983, Medley et al. 1984).

Although perspectives differ, most writers (Bolton 1973, Denham 1987, Harris 1986, Redfern 1980) seem to agree that the major purposes of an evaluation are to:

1. Provide a process that allows and encourages supervisors and teachers to work together to improve and enhance classroom instructional practices.
2. Provide a process for bringing structured assistance to marginal teachers.
3. Provide a basis for making more rational decisions about the retention, transfer, or dismissal of staff members.
4. Provide a basis for making more informed judgments about differing performance levels for use in compensation programs such as merit pay plans or career ladder programs.
5. Provide information for determining the extent of implementation of knowledge and skills gained during staff development activities and for use in judging the degree of maintenance of the acquired knowledge and skills.

Each of these purposes alone serves a clear function. But when we look at them as a set of purposes for a single evaluation system, they can be overwhelming. Each purpose demands a set of practices and requirements that adds complexity and "weight" to the system. That actual or perceived weight can dramatically lessen the full and active participation of both administrators and teachers. Their willingness to be involved and to choose to fully participate is absolutely crucial to the success of an evaluation plan (McGreal 1983, Sergiovanni and Carver 1980, Wagoner and O'Hanlon 1968).

It is imperative that Elm Hills first establish exactly the purposes of its evaluation system. Most school districts back off from addressing purpose #4 in that they do not have, or are unlikely ever to have, compensation programs that are driven by performance evaluation data. Most states that have statewide compensation programs have developed an evaluation scheme that must accompany the plan and thus takes away the necessity for the local district to have its evaluation system meet this purpose. (See McGreal 1987 for further discussion of building evaluation systems for use within compensation programs.)

While there is growing attention to addressing the needs of marginal teachers (Sweeny and Manatt 1984), the majority of schools with successful teacher evaluation programs have decided that remedial issues can be addressed within their regular procedures rather than using a set of rules and guidelines built specifically for marginal staff members. Certainly, there are programs for marginal teachers in a number of schools that are viewed as successful (Manatt 1987). But there is a growing feeling that a set of special procedures for marginal teachers sets a tone that is not generally conducive to positive administrator-teacher relationships. This is an example of the "weight" of a system. The more evaluation materials are loaded with procedures and language that are heavy with remedial or punitive overtones, the less likely people are to have positive attitudes about evaluation (Harris 1986, Zelenak 1973, Zelenak and Snider 1974). Because the impetus for change in Elm Hills has come from a perceived lack of attention in dealing correctly with a marginal teacher, it is especially important that the district step back and look rationally at the possible costs of putting a heavy emphasis on procedures and practices for working with the least able teachers. Why build an evaluation system for the few Harriett Halversons when there is considerable evidence that the emphasis on remediation and dismissal proceedings can have a debilitating influence on the development of helping, growth-oriented relationships with the 99 percent of faculty members who are not Harriett Halverson (Harris 1986, McGreal 1983, Medley et al. 1984)?

As in most school districts, Elm Hills' "problem" with Harriett Halverson was not necessarily the fault of the evaluation system. It can be attributed more to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the evaluators than to the system itself. Not that the system isn't important; actually, it's far more important than people often think (McGreal 1983). It is the system's procedures and practices that allow or encourage what happens between teachers and administrators. The bottom line of effective evaluation is the quality of what happens when the administrator and teacher get together. Whenever possible, the system should not get in their way. Elm Hills officials should be encouraged to take a minimalist's view toward building their evaluation system. In many respects it should be built backwards. Start with the bottom of the system, the teacher and administrator sitting down and talking together, and build from there. More and more local districts are realizing that if they design a system around effective supervisory and teaching behaviors, and if appropriate training is provided to the administrators and teachers, then a single evaluation system can adequately serve purposes 1, 2, 3, and 5.

Meeting multiple purposes through a single system seems best accomplished when there is a clear commitment to identifying a major, overriding purpose—in this case, the improvement and enhancement of classroom instructional practices. In a sense, this is our bigger plan. Evaluation systems work best when they are viewed as a subset of a bigger movement—a districtwide commitment to the enhancement of classroom instruction. Establish the major goal first, and then build an evaluation system that grows logically from that goal.

In many ways we have tried to make evaluation too complicated. From the minimalist's perspective, all we are trying to do is put in place a process that allows and encourages two adults to get together and talk about teaching. Recent staff development research seems to clearly support the notion that the more people talk about teaching, the better they get at it (Griffin and Barnes 1986, Sparks 1986). Unfortunately, the average school setting does not encourage much "teaching talk" to occur. The only two places where it can happen to any great extent are through staff development activities and through the conversation that is generated by teacher evaluation. These two sources of teaching talk are legitimate and adequate for improving instruction. The job of a school district is to provide staff development opportunities that foster teaching talk and to employ an evaluation system that is both complementary and supplementary to staff development. This is the way in which evaluation and development are most logically linked. As stated in purpose 5, the evaluation system of a district becomes the mechanism for monitoring staff development training and the vehicle for maintaining the instructional momentum generated by training functions.

Both the literature and experiential evidence suggest that evaluation systems focusing primarily on instructional enhancement are almost always accompanied by the necessary levels of accountability (McGreal 1983, Medley et al. 1984, Wood and Lease 1987). On the other hand, systems built from an attitude of "defensibility," heavy with accountability mechanisms, generally lack support or encouragement for growth in instructional practices (Harris 1986, Medley et al. 1984, Murphy 1987). This attempt to focus on instructional enhancement does not mean that the charge given by the Elm Hills board has been forgotten. Rather, this should be viewed as an attempt to expand the opportunities that are available when redesigning an evaluation system.

Necessary Ingredients for Launching Instructional Enhancement Efforts

Leadership Density

The role of strong leadership in the development of effective evaluation systems is well documented (Iwanicki 1981, McGreal 1983, Wise and Darling-

Hammond 1984). It appears that this necessary leadership is manifested in several ways. The most obvious need appears to be leadership that emanates from the top. While much of the effective schools literature points to the importance of the principal in providing instructional leadership at the school level, there is increasing evidence that the role of the superintendent and central office staff members is every bit as crucial to instructional improvement efforts (Murphy and Hallinger in press). Outside consultants have long held that the likelihood for successful implementation of a school improvement effort is in direct proportion to the amount of involvement and commitment shown by the superintendent. Successful leadership from the top must be active leadership. Superintendents and central office staff members must be physically and emotionally involved in the schoolwide process of planning, developing, and implementing a local instructional improvement plan, especially the staff development and staff evaluation components.

While it is necessary to have strong leadership from the top, it is not sufficient. Leadership must be dispersed deliberately throughout the organization; it does not appear to be a natural phenomenon. At the local level, this is one of the main purposes served by having strong staff involvement in the committee or advisory group process. The members of these groups develop and display their leadership by influencing the rest of the staff. This depth becomes increasingly important the more dramatic or threatening the proposed program may be.

Depth of leadership seems to be best obtained by establishing a relatively small (7 to 10 members) instructional advisory group. Group members are selected on the basis of their influence and credibility with their peers; they need not be representative of the entire school district, but they should be active association or union members. Their influential standing appears to be more important than where they are located within the district. It is also advisable to have one board member in this group. This gives the board member the chance to become as knowledgeable as staff members about the group's recommendations, and it gives the group an advocate when recommendations are brought to the board.

For maximum leadership and continuity, this group should be active for at least three to five years. Group members then become the "experts" in instruction and can serve as instigators of or reactors to instructional initiatives. The makeup, the focus, and the continuity of the group help to ensure the depth of leadership so important to successful instructional enhancement efforts.

Knowledge of the Literature

If a district is going to give itself the best chance to put together effective evaluation and staff development practices, it is crucial that at least one person or one group be responsible for knowing what the literature, research, and discussions of best practices are saying about effective programs and practices. The knowledge about effective teaching and supervision, successful teacher evaluation, and staff development has grown dramatically in recent years. It is virtually impossible for the average professional to keep up with the rapid changes in current practices. It demands a systematic, focused, and coordinated effort with the full commitment of the district behind it. The purpose of this effort is to be sure that the district knows the available options and is assured that it is working on the cutting edge of effective programs. It helps the district feel that it is in the best possible position to match its needs with what is available. While most schools end up adapting what they learn to better fit their unique setting, at least they are doing it from an informed opinion.

A Districtwide Sense of Priorities and an Appropriate Time Frame

Although we know little about the Elm Hills school district, we can assume quite a bit. As in most other school districts, recent school improvement efforts at local, state, and federal levels have created significant problems for Elm Hills. These problems are not the result of Elm Hills doing too little to "improve"; rather, it is likely that Elm Hills is doing, or having to do, too much.

The events of the most recent school-reform movement have spawned a series of local, state, and federal initiatives that, while well-meaning for the most part, have in fact spread the resources and energies of districts and staffs to the point that most of these new efforts have become counterproductive. There is only so much we can ask of the people who work in our schools. Right now, we are creating a generation of teachers and administrators who are unable to give the time and energy to ever see a program or a new initiative through to maturity. No sooner do schools implement a new emphasis than the next effort is started. Suddenly, energy and resources must be diverted to the new project. Consequently, teachers and administrators are never able to get any closure on projects because they can never stay with them long enough.

Districts like Elm Hills need to take the time to determine what is most important to them and then to be sure that top priorities receive their major commitment. A first step for Elm Hills would be to develop some sense of what exists in the district right now. This can often be accomplished by establishing a "war room." In effect, this room contains a map of every major initiative, program, special project, and program emphasis in the district—everything going on that takes time, money, or energy from the district and its staff. With this coordination, it often becomes easier to see where re-

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sources are going and the relationship between where they are going and what is viewed as being most important.

This chapter assumes that there is no higher priority in a district than resources provided for the enhancement and improvement of classroom instructional practices. Of all the things a district can do, resources placed in instructional efforts often produce the highest dividends in terms of student learning (Good et al. 1975). It is imperative that districts establish this emphasis on instruction as a high priority.

A new program requires at least a three- to five-year commitment from a district to have a chance to succeed. The necessary ingredient here is the district's willingness and ability to stay with an effort and not make any other major commitments that could detract from it. An appropriate time frame for instructional enhancement programs is essential. Schools must be willing to be judged on the basis of the quality of fewer programs rather than feel that their quality must and can be determined by the quantity of programs and initiatives they are trying to support. If Elm Hills is unwilling or unable to make the kind of commitment necessary to see these initiatives through to maturity, then its efforts will quickly dissipate.

Structured Staff Development

Centrality can benefit instructional staff development activities (Murphy and Hallinger in press). To assure successful and lasting instructional enhancement efforts through teacher evaluation and staff development, core training should be provided to all teachers and administrators in a district.

Part of the responsibilities of the instructional advisory group would be to build a "framework for teaching" drawn primarily from three sources: (1) reviews of the research on teaching that are based on the empirical studies linking teacher behaviors to student cognitive achievement, i.e., the teacher effects research; (2) teacher behaviors that are generated by applying theory-based concepts to teaching situations, i.e., Hunter "models"; (3) the use of "conventional wisdom," i.e., those things that experienced teachers feel are important and have generated from consensus building among district staff members. What emerges is a picture of what the school district thinks effective teaching looks like. How the framework is built and which sources are used ensure that the dimensions of teaching listed probably do make a difference in promoting student learning. (See Medley et al. 1984 for a more detailed discussion of building a reasonable and supportable set of teacher performance dimensions for use in instructional improvement activities.) At this point, the framework can become the driving force behind the instructional enhancement efforts of the district.

The first use of the framework is as a guide for evaluating various staff development options. In many respects, the 1980s has been the era of staff

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development. The number of people involved in staff development and the number of programs, workshops, institutes, seminars, conferences, and courses have increased dramatically. Consequently, the problem facing local school districts is not the availability of staff development but trying to decide what makes most sense for the district right now. Unfortunately, most districts have adopted the view that if a little staff development is good, a lot would be even better. The result is a smorgasbord of staff development activities supposedly designed to meet the needs of individual teachers and administrators. What happens, however, is that energies and resources are spread over so many programs that only small groups participate in any one activity. No single program has enough support to keep it alive. The people who attend a particular program end up being able to talk only with each other because they are the only ones with the understanding and terminology to make sense out of what was presented.

The presence of the framework and a commitment to a focused, structured staff development approach can help improve this situation. The framework becomes the guide for evaluating instructional staff development options. The advisory group recommends which programs seem to best reflect what the district has determined are the most important dimensions of teaching. These dimensions then become the core offerings in which all staff members participate. As an example, assume members of the advisory group, either through past exposure or through judgments based on their literature review, feel very comfortable about teaching behaviors or strategies drawn from the work of Madeline Hunter (1984). The framework then built would likely show a heavy reliance on terminology and practices associated with Hunter or her advocates. Consequently, the advisory group would recommend that a staff development program featuring the Hunter work be required of all teachers and administrators.

This is a clear move away from the volunteer notion of staff development. Certainly there are teachers and administrators who will profit less or perhaps not at all from required staff development; however, most training activities are not going to make people worse. Required participation helps build consistency between and among the different organizational levels and buildings in a district. Too often, instructional enhancement efforts have been eroded because only certain buildings or teachers (more elementary than secondary) choose to volunteer. It should be made clear that this common exposure to staff development is not designed to force or require all teachers to act and think alike; rather, teachers should share common language and dispositions (Raths and Katz 1985) for use in facilitating and encouraging more frequent teaching talk. Thus, districts need to select trainers who have a good understanding of all the complexities of teaching and are not dogmatic about a particular approach.

There are other approaches besides Hunter's to shape the framework or to make decisions about staff development opportunities. Equally influential is the work associated with the teacher effects research. (See Wittrock 1986 for the best and most recent review of the research on teaching.) When this more empirical approach is used by districts, such staff development programs as TESA and Classroom Management Training (Emmer et al. 1980) can be the core programs.

As faculty members complete the core training, other staff development programs can be offered. But the primary responsibility of staff development should be to first give everyone in the district an introduction to the knowledge, skills, and understandings that have driven the development of the district's framework for teaching. Mandated participation may seem like a top-down situation that contradicts popular beliefs about successful change strategies, but the most effective strategies may be a combination of the top-down and bottom-up movements (Clark et al. 1984, Glickman 1987). In this type of instructional improvement focus, it is perfectly legitimate for a district advisory group to make decisions about instructional directions. The key for successful implementation is heavy staff involvement in reviewing and commenting on the framework and significant involvement in making decisions about the best ways to begin to implement the recommended staff development programs and the new teacher evaluation system.

Figure 1.1 is a framework for teaching developed by the Gwinnett County (Georgia) schools. As is recommended here, the framework was built first, then an appropriate staff development program was designed. The framework will then be used as the performance criteria within the newly built teacher evaluation system. In this way the framework becomes the most logical link between staff development and teacher evaluation.

Successful efforts to enhance instruction through staff development and teacher evaluation can be developed without any or all of those recommended ingredients being present. However, experience indicates that the likelihood of successful maintenance of important instructional initiatives is significantly increased if districts take the time to develop these ingredients before rushing into any major redesign of teacher evaluation programs.

Components of an Evaluation System that Complements Instructional Enhancement

The next logical step is to construct an evaluation. Elm Hills needs to ensure that the time spent developing and putting in place the necessary ingredients for instructional enhancement is not wasted. The evaluation system must complement what the district wants it to be and do (McGreal 1983). Too often, developers who spend time espousing a strong growth-oriented

Figure 1.1
A Framework for Teaching

Planning

- A Develops and prioritizes long- and short-term objectives within curriculum guidelines
  - 1 Identifies specific prerequisite skills and/or knowledge necessary to accomplish the objective
  - 2 Plans instruction as needed to promote student mastery of prerequisite skills and knowledge
  - 3 Prepares written lesson plans to support instructional objectives
  - 4 Incorporates cognitive levels of learning: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation
  - 5 Plans appropriate evaluation
- B Evaluates, selects, and modifies resources and activities
  - 1 Reviews resources
  - 2 Selects resources and activities and activities that match objective(s)
  - 3 Selects resources and activities that match the learner(s)
  - 4 Selects resources and activities that provide a variety of learning modalities

Implementing

- A Provides initial focus for the lesson
  - 1 Clearly communicates specific learning objectives to students
  - 2 Provides a context for objectives by one or more of the following
    - a presenting an overview or outline of how information fits together
    - b reviewing related previous work
    - c describing the purpose, rationale, or relevance for what is to be learned
  - 3 Captures student attention through active involvement
- B Delivers lesson
  - 1 Uses appropriate delivery strategy(ies)—ways of providing information for students to acquire the learning—for example: lecture, discussion, inquiry, or cooperative group learning
    - a presents definitions, examples, illustrations, and concrete points of reference
    - b uses aids and materials that effectively support the presentation
    - c emphasizes critical or important areas of the topic by explicitly stating or highlighting their importance
    - d models learning processes
    - e provides relevant examples and models of higher-level thinking by verbalizing the process of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation
    - f summarizes or reviews during the lesson to provide continuity
  - 2 Relates new ideas to previous or future learning
    - a provides simple examples first and then moves to more difficult or complex examples
    - b relates learning to relevant life experiences
    - c points out similarities and differences in learning
    - d uses associations and analogies
  - 3 Organizes content for presentation of the lesson
    - a presents information in a logical sequence, such as: moving from simple to complex, and moving from concrete to abstract
    - b organizes the presentation of content into blocks or steps based on the ability of the students and the complexity of the material
  - 4 Uses questions to promote understanding
    - a creates the expectation of being called on by eliciting responses from volunteers and nonvolunteers
    - b asks clearly stated questions that are relevant to the objective(s)

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      c provides cues to prompt, correct, or expand student answers
      d asks students to explain answers and clarify answers
      e pauses after asking a question to provide wait-time for student responses
      f asks questions before calling upon specific students, thereby encouraging all students to formulate answers
      g asks questions that require knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation

C Provides guided practice
  1 Conducts relevant teacher-directed group practice activities after presenting new information or skills
  2 Provides guided practice on new learning in amounts that are appropriate to the complexity of the content, to logical division of the content, and to the ability of the student (for example: small bits of information for complex content or for low-ability students)
  3 Moves among the students to give assistance during guided practice
  4 Continues guided practice until most students are capable of mastering the objectives

D Provides independent practice
  1 Assigns independent practice after successful guided practice
  2 Assigns appropriate independent practice through in-class or homework activities
  3 Differentiates independent practice assignments based on learner needs

E Monitors instruction
  1 Generates relevant observable behavior—written, verbal, and physical—by involving students in practice activities and by asking group and individual questions
    a varies the types of responses generated, such as asking students to: respond on scratch paper, take notes, tell another student, respond chorally, or use signal responses
    b stimulates covert involvement of students by using strategies such as: directing all students to think of an example, asking them to remember an experience, or asking them to mentally prepare to describe a picture or model
  2 Interprets student responses to determine opportunities for praise, prompts, extensions, and corrective feedback
    a observes students' facial expressions and other nonverbal behaviors to determine if further clues or explanations are needed
    b observes students for initial engagement after making assignments
    c listens to verbal responses to check understanding, progress, and involvement
    d moves among students to check progress, understanding, and involvement and to give assistance during individual or group work
  3 Provides feedback on student responses
    a provides specific feedback on responses that are correct and on why they are correct
    b provides feedback to students by repeating, paraphrasing, applying, or extending their correct responses
    c provides specific feedback on responses that are incorrect and on why they are incorrect
    d takes corrective action, such as: giving hints, using different words and examples, reteaching, creating smaller steps, and employing alternative instructional materials when students make incorrect responses
    e provides individual students with opportunities to give correct answers by dignifying incorrect responses, by providing prompts, and by returning later to the student for a chance to repeat the correct response

F Closes lesson by using an appropriate strategy(ies).
  1 Restates the objective that has been stressed in the lesson.

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Figure 1.1 (continued)

2. Asks a student to summarize the lesson or state the objective
3. Summarizes the main points of the lesson.
4. Asks questions to determine whether students are thinking about what they have learned and putting ideas together in their minds.
5. Associates material the students have learned that day to previous material studied or to future learning.
6. Provides an interesting "clincher" to bring the lesson to an effective close and leave the students with something to think about.
7. Relates what the students have studied that day to the overall unit itself.
8. Tells the students what they will be studying the next day and perhaps how it relates to what they have been studying during this day's lesson.

Evaluating

A. Provides formative evaluation that measures student progress toward objective(s).
   1. Observes students' facial expressions and other nonverbal behaviors to determine if further clues or explanations are needed.
   2. Listens to verbal responses to check understanding, progress, and involvement.
   3. Generates relevant observable behavior—written, verbal, and physical—by involving students in practice activities and by asking group and individual questions.
   4. Moves among students to check progress, understanding, and involvement.
   5. Provides criteria that allow students to measure their own progress toward an objective.

B. Provides summative evaluation that measures student achievement of objective(s).
   1. Provides evaluation that matches learning objectives.
   2. Provides evaluation that is appropriate for the learner(s).
   3. Maintains evaluation records for each student.
   4. Communicates evaluation results to student.
   5. Uses evaluation results to plan for subsequent instruction.

Classroom Climate

A. Organizes learning environment to maximize student time on task.
   1. Organizes and arranges classroom to facilitate learning.
   2. Makes smooth transitions from one activity to another.
   3. Maintains an orderly system for housekeeping duties—attendance, passes, announcements, distributing and collecting materials and homework assignments.

B. Maintains behavior that is conducive to learning.
   1. Clearly defines and communicates behavior expectations to students.
   2. Monitors behavior and provides appropriate feedback to students.
   3. Deals effectively with inappropriate behavior.

C. Helps learners develop positive self-concepts.
   1. Focuses on student behavior rather than personality.
   2. Communicates a high degree of appropriate academic praise for all students.
   3. Treats sensitive situations with discretion.
   4. Encourages participation from all students.
   5. Accepts diverse opinions.
   6. Establishes mutual respect between teacher and students.
   7. Conveys warmth, friendliness, and enthusiasm.

Source: This framework for teaching is used with the permission of the Gwinnett County Schools, Lawrenceville, Georgia. The framework's opening philosophy statement and an explanation of how it is and is not to be used are not included here.

position finally construct one that fails to reflect that stance. The only way the district can be assured that the system allows and encourages good supervision and evaluation is if the advisory committee continuously compares the new system against what is known about improving and enhancing instruction through evaluation (Duke and Stiggins 1986).

Successful evaluation and supervision depends on the quality of what happens between the teacher and evaluator (McGreal 1983). Many of the variables necessary to make this one-on-one relationship productive revolve around the type of training given participants and the attitudes they hold and display during their involvement in evaluation (Darling-Hammond 1983). Thus the quantity and quality of the supervisor's skills gained through training and experience and the degree that the supervisor and teacher trust each other are the main determiners of the effectiveness of evaluation. Nevertheless, for the supervisor's skills to be used effectively, the system must allow and promote their application. Additionally, credibility and trust are gained primarily through the behavior and action displayed during evaluation activities. The system itself makes a difference and thus deserves considerable thought and attention.

A number of reviews focus on what evaluation can and should be (McLaughlin 1984, Reyes 1986, Stiggins 1986, Stiggins and Bridgeford 1985) and on what components should make up successful teacher evaluation systems (Conley 1987, Duke and Stiggins 1986, McGreal 1983, 1987, Wise et al. 1984). It appears that an evaluation system is more likely to support teacher and teaching growth if it:

1. Includes clear criteria, established with significant teacher involvement, that reflects the district's framework for looking at and talking about teaching.
2. Provides opportunity for increased teacher involvement within the actual functioning of the system.
3. Provides opportunity to use multiple sources of data to ensure the fullest possible picture of teaching.
4. Allows and encourages feedback activities that have been shown to encourage professional growth.

Establishing Clear Criteria

An essential element of any effective evaluation system is a clear, visible, and appropriate set of evaluation criteria. As Strike and Bull (1981) indicate, it is the responsibility of a school district and the right of a teacher to have an explicit set of criteria or expectations that define the teacher's role. In addition to meeting legal responsibilities, local criteria also serve as a template to compare performance. This increases consistency among the different evaluators and provides general guidelines for teachers and supervisors to use in directing their enhancement efforts. It is likely that part of the problem Elm Hills faced was an unclear and poorly defined set of criteria that prevented them from pointing to previously developed teaching behaviors that were part of their expectations for teachers.

In the best of situations, evaluation criteria are driven by the framework for teaching. Using this concept, the criteria should be built by a consensus approach (Medley et al. 1984) that is directed by the instructional advisory committee (or a similar group, such as a subcommittee of the evaluation committee). This criteria building or framework development generally includes choosing the dimensions of teacher performance that are thought to be crucial and then defining each dimension provisionally by specifying behaviors whose occurrence in the classroom are examples of their use (Medley et al. 1984). The framework in Figure 1.1 is a good example of a generally accepted set of performance dimensions and accompanying behaviors. Certainly, this is only one example of what a district like Elm Hills might construct, but it offers an excellent outline for comparison.

The criteria in Figure 1.1 are drawn primarily from the teacher effects research and Hunter's work. Often the researchers and the developers of the most popular staff development models urge that their work should be kept separate from evaluation activities. Their arguments are legitimate in that the effects research and other views of effective teaching are not designed for evaluation and have been misused. Yet it seems unrealistic to suggest that in the real world of schooling this clear division can be maintained. If a staff development program designed to improve or enhance classroom instruction is made available to teachers and supervisors, then in effect it is legitimized as containing behaviors important to student learning. If ways of teaching have been viewed important enough to allocate energy and resources to train staff members, then they are significant enough to be included in the district's criteria. Actually it all depends on the way the criteria are used. If they are viewed for what they should be—a framework for directing actions and not a set of rules that must be displayed—then it is logical and necessary that the components of effective teaching form the basis for our criteria.

The framework presented in Figure 1.1 focuses on only the classroom instructional practices of teachers. While this may be the most important part of teachers' jobs, it does not cover all of their responsibilities. A full presentation of evaluation criteria should include administrative, personal, and professional criteria as well as actual classroom performance criteria. All may not be equally important in the overall evaluation of a teacher, but they do contribute to the complete view of what a teacher is minimally expected to do and to be. Figure 1.2 is an example of a set of minimum expectations established by a local school district. These minimums are stated in a series of relatively general statements. In districts that have chosen this format, these

Figure 1.2
A Statement of Minimum Expectations

An integral part of both tenured and nontenured staff members' employment in the school district is an ongoing appraisal by their supervisor of their ability to meet minimum expectations. As appropriate to the various jobs performed by staff members in the school district, the minimum expectations include, but are not necessarily limited to, the following:

1. Meets and instructs the students in the location at the time designated.
2. Develops and maintains a classroom environment conducive to effective learning within the limits of the resources provided by the district.
3. Prepares for classes assigned, and shows written evidence of preparation upon request of the immediate supervisor.
4. Encourages students to set and maintain high standards of classroom behavior.
5. Provides an effective program of instruction in accordance with the adopted curriculum and consistent with the physical limitations of the location provided and the needs and capabilities of the individuals or student groups involved.
6. Strives to implement by instruction the district's philosophy of education and to meet instructional goals and objectives.
7. Takes all necessary and reasonable precautions to protect students, equipment, materials, and facilities.
8. Maintains records as required by law, district policy, and administrative regulations.
9. Makes provisions for being available to students and parents for education related purposes outside the instructional day when necessary and under reasonable terms.
10. Assists in upholding and enforcing school rules and administrative regulations.
11. Attends and participates in faculty and department meetings.
12. Cooperates with other members of the staff in planning instructional goals, objectives, and methods.
13. Assists in the selection of books, equipment, and other instructional materials.
14. Works to establish and maintain open lines of communication with students, parents, and colleagues concerning both the academic and behavioral progress of all students.
15. Establishes and maintains cooperative professional relations with others.
16. Performs related duties as assigned by the administration in accordance with district policies and practices.

The appraisal of these minimum expectations will typically be made through a supervisor's daily contact and interaction with the staff member. When problems occur in these areas, the staff member will be contacted by the supervisor to remind the staff member of minimum expectations in the problem area and to provide whatever assistance might be helpful. If the problem continues or reoccurs, the supervisor, in his or her discretion, may prepare and issue to the staff member a written notice setting forth the specific deficiency with a copy to the teacher's file. In the unlikely event that serious, intentional, or flagrant violations of these minimum expectations occur, the supervisor, at his or her discretion, may put aside the recommended procedure and make a direct recommendation for more formal and immediate action.

general statements are literally kept separate from the more specific performance criteria as exemplified in Figure 1.1. These behaviors are evaluated as needed; they are not automatically a part of the supervisor-teacher discussions during classroom teaching. This is the essence of the concept of separating administrative and supervisory behavior during evaluation (McGreal 1982, 1983).

Establishing clear criteria is crucial to building successful teacher evaluation systems. These criteria help satisfy a number of important ingredients.

1. Clear criteria offer the district and the teacher legal and due process safeguards (Peterson 1983, Strike and Bull 1981). In effect, this assures that accountability demands can be met while focusing on instructional enhancement.

2. Performance criteria follow recommended procedures to provide the necessary guidelines for assuring consistency and focus for evaluation and enhancement efforts (Acheson and Gall 1987, Duke and Stiggins 1986, Darling-Hammond et al., 1983, McGreal 1983).

3. When developed from the district's framework for teaching, the criteria allow the evaluation system to be the instrument for implementing and maintaining the framework-driven staff development initiatives (Wood and Lease 1987).

Involvement Within the System

Current research consistently suggests that the strong involvement of teachers is necessary if evaluation systems are to be successful (Duke and Stiggins 1986, Huddle 1985, Stiggins and Bridgeford 1985). Because the press for an improved, defensible evaluation system in Elm Hills came from the top, it is especially important that this component be incorporated into their plans. On the surface, the concept of teacher involvement seems straightforward. Most districts include teachers in planning efforts and then assume that this meets the need for participation. Such early, limited involvement is useful, but it does not address the issue seriously enough. Teachers must feel a sense of involvement within the internal workings of the evaluation system (Huddle 1985, Ruck 1986, Wise and Darling-Hammond 1985).

The two most obvious ways to increase teachers' participation in the evaluation system are to:

1. Have teachers become actively involved in data collection and feedback via collegial supervision, peer coaching, and teacher mentoring.

2. Build mechanisms within the system that allow for more teacher participation as they work with administrators.

The most logical and practical method is to construct processes that encourage more administrator-teacher cooperation. This is not to discourage the development of supervisory relationships, for there is clearly an expanding literature on the usefulness and potential of such activities (Alfonso and Goldberry 1982, Cruikshank and Applegate 1981, Garawski 1980, Glatthorn 1984, Joyce and Showers 1981, Little 1985). However, for the average school, the use of these approaches still seems a long way off. For all of the increasing discussion about more collegial involvement, there are still not enough exemplars or empirical evidence to suggest whether it has an impact on teaching and learning (Sparks 1986). Additionally, there are many unanswered questions about how local districts can handle the costs, logistical problems, and attitude adjustment necessary to make these processes function effectively. This is not to deny the potential, but in looking realistically at the movement, local districts should assume that the great majority of supervision and evaluation of instruction is going to result from interaction between a teacher and an administrator rather than between teachers.

This leaves school districts to find ways within the evaluation system to increase teacher-administrator collaboration. Evaluation practices should involve individual goal-setting activities that occur between teachers and administrators and should form the major focus for what they do together (Acheson and Gall 1987, Iwanicki 1981, McGreal 1983, Redfern 1980). Goal setting has been a recommended practice in teacher evaluation since the management-by-objectives (MBO) movement hit education (Lewis 1973). Since then it has gone through several adaptive formats (Iwanicki 1981, Redfern 1980). The most widely accepted format currently in use is generally labeled the Practical Goal Setting Approach (McGreal 1983).

A set of beliefs about supervisors, teachers, and teaching is basic to goal setting. The primary reason for developing or redesigning an evaluation system is to enhance classroom instruction. As such, the major reason for setting goals is to allow the supervisor and the teacher the chance to establish a narrow, more workable focus for their efforts. Viewing teachers and administrators realistically, it is unlikely that either group is going to be able to commit significant amounts of additional time to the evaluation process. In moving to new evaluation procedures that require considerably more time and energy, supervisors and teachers are seldom told what activities and responsibilities may be dropped to provide the additional time. Rather, the additional time is always viewed as an add-on to what they are already doing. Many potentially effective systems have failed because they placed unrealistic demands on the time and resources of the people involved. Consequently, goal setting attempts to focus on improving the quality, rather than the amount, of time spent between supervisor and teacher.

Basically, the most effective goal setting starts with a conference between the administrator and the teacher at the beginning of the school year. (Some districts prefer doing this toward the end of the preceding year.) The purpose of the conference is to establish the goal or goals that will be the major focus for what the teacher and the administrator do together. All other evaluation activities between the two parties are now driven by these goals and plans for attaining them. The general rule is that the more talented and experienced the teacher, the more the administrator relies on the teacher in establishing goals. The less talented and less mature the teacher, the more directive the administrator needs to be. This process encourages the implementation of a number of contemporary supervisory practices such as developmental supervision (Glickman 1981) and differentiated supervision (Glatthorn 1984). The key is that the goal setting is a cooperative process that occurs between two people and forms the basis for a working relationship that carries through the entire evaluation period. Too often schools establish professional growth and improvement plans that require teachers to produce goals at the beginning of the year or following the receipt of their final summative evaluation, share them with their supervisor, and then get together at the end of the year for the teacher to tell the administrator what has been done. That is a paper exercise that gives the illusion of involvement. To be effective, goal setting must be based on a continuing collaboration between two people. This is the essence of supervisory behavior.

In the best of situations, the established goals are clearly the focus of attention. The goals are driven whenever possible by the previously developed framework for teaching or by the established performance criteria. This does not mean that only the goals are given attention. Certainly, the framework/criteria are always there symbolically. But it is impossible to see and judge all that is represented in a full description of effective teaching. The administrator must use professional judgment to decide what is most important and how best to encourage a focus on those things. Supervision and evaluation are long-term processes. The average teacher is a competent professional who does not need to be continuously monitored on such a wide range of behaviors that there is never time for focusing on one or two variables that can have lasting impact.

Once the goals are established, they become the goals of both the teacher and the administrator. Plans are built from the notion of what "we" can do to help meet the goals. Feelings of joint responsibility and cooperation are not natural phenomena. Standard evaluation practices have cast teachers and administrators into an adversarial rather than a cooperative role. But through training for both teachers and administrators and a system that allows it to happen, cooperation can be achieved successfully. Functioning and effective goal-setting systems exist in hundreds of school districts like Elm Hills.

The actual recommended practices for effective goal setting—such as how many goals should be set, how the plans are built, what the goals should look like, and how to handle situations where the teacher and administrator disagree about what goals should be set—are detailed elsewhere (McGreal 1983). Suffice it to say that the development of individual goals and the cooperative development of a plan for addressing them can satisfy a number of important components of successful evaluation systems. For instance:

1. Goal setting provides a real opportunity for teacher involvement within the system, not just in the planning stages.

2. Goal setting allows administrators and teachers to focus on a narrower, more manageable set of behaviors or skills that recognizes the limits of available time and energy.

3. Goal setting and the development of specific plans to address each goal allows administrators to use the variety of supervisory skills that are available to them through staff development.

4. Individual goal setting allows administrators to satisfy due process requirements by providing a focused remediation plan when teacher competence is marginal.

5. Goal setting allows for the directed, structured remediation activities that are a necessary part of any required documentation when teacher dismissal on the grounds of incompetence is contemplated.

6. The cooperative development of goals allows teachers and administrators far more opportunities to build trust and credibility between them.

7. Goal setting encourages focusing on knowledge, behaviors, and skills that have been generated through staff development programs, thus encouraging the implementation and maintenance of these programs.

8. The plans that are built from the goals allow administrators considerably more flexibility in using different methods and alternative sources of data. This gives them far more opportunity to exercise their professional judgment about what is best for that particular teacher.

The Use of Alternative Sources of Data

To make the best possible judgments about the quality of job performance, the fullest picture of that performance must be developed. While observation has been the dominant method of collecting formal data about teaching, there are other data-gathering methods that can be helpful, if not essential, in establishing an effective evaluation effort. Teaching and learning are complex acts that occur in many forms and contexts. To be studied as fully as possible, teaching needs to be looked at in a variety of ways. The credibility of administrators is enhanced by their being able to understand, demonstrate, and recommend different alternatives for pursuing goals.

There are at least eight recognized techniques for collecting data for evaluating instructional practices: paper-and-pencil test, self-evaluation, parent evaluation, peer evaluation, student performance, student evaluation, artifact collection, and observation. Actually, none of the eight alone has been proven to be reliable for making summative judgments. However, data from multiple sources increases reliability (Epstein 1985). While all eight of these methods have some potential use, problems such as practicality and questionable reliability make it essential that local districts decide which make the most sense for them given their particular needs and environment. The most seriously questioned methods include paper-and-pencil tests (Medley et al. 1984, Quirk et al. 1973), self-evaluation (Brighton 1965, McGreal 1983), parent evaluation (Becker and Epstein 1982, McGreal 1983), peer evaluation (Bergman 1980, Cohen and McKeachie 1980, McGee and Eaker 1977), and student performance (Millman 1981, Medley et al. 1984, Stiggins 1988).

Three data-gathering methods seem to receive most of the attention. In the judgment of many, students are a powerful source of data about classrooms (Farley 1981, McNeil and Popham 1973, Walberg 1969). However, the average teacher is uncomfortable with the concept (McGreal 1983). They generally lack faith in students' ability to accurately rate a teacher's performance. It appears that the kind of data collected and how they are used are the key elements in the acceptability and usefulness of student input. Evaluators can obtain reliable student information if they concentrate on describing life in the classroom rather than making judgments of the teacher. Walberg (1974) reinforced this view when he indicated that a series of studies have demonstrated that student perceptions of the classroom learning environment can be measured reliably. The key phrase is "student perceptions of the learning environment," not student perceptions or judgments of the teacher's performance.

A number of available instruments focus on perceptions of life in the classroom (Anderson 1973, Walberg et al. 1973). They offer excellent examples of the difference between asking students to respond to descriptive statements ("I feel free to ask and answer questions in this class") rather than evaluative statements ("The teacher is not very well organized"). This concept can also drive the development of instruments that are used only in a single situation where the teacher and administrator feel that it would be useful to get some student feedback about one of the goals. This type of data is much less threatening to teachers since it does not ask students to evaluate them. Sharing this information also promotes high levels of teaching talk between the teacher and the supervisor. The general recommendation for using student feedback is that it would be a required part of nontenured teachers' plans, but it would be used with tenured teachers only as it fit a particular goal.

Artifact collection, or materials sampling, is another data source gaining popularity. Time as a variable of learning has become a more visible concept, and the way teachers and students spend their instructional time in classrooms has been studied in a more systematic and accurate fashion (Rosenshine 1980). Current data suggest that K-12 students spend as much time interacting with teaching artifacts as they do being directly taught by the teacher (McGreal and Collins 1985). These realities of classroom life make it imperative that teacher evaluation procedures include the systematic analysis and discussion of classroom materials (McGreal 1983).

Teaching artifacts include all instructional materials used to facilitate learning. This includes everything from textbooks, workbooks, and supplementary texts to learning kits, maps, audiovisual aids, films, dittoed material, study guides, question sheets, worksheets, problem sets, quizzes, and tests. Typically, teachers assume the responsibility for collecting the artifacts for an entire teaching unit, or for a two- to three-week period from a single class. Following the collection, the teacher and supervisor review, analyze, and discuss the materials.

Much research is needed to learn more about the effect of teacher artifacts on teaching and learning. At this point, the most positive benefit seems to be the high level of technical-professional talk it generates between teachers and supervisors. While frameworks for use in analyzing artifacts are available (McGreal et al. 1984), it should be assumed that the major impact of artifact collection and analysis will be in the area of formative evaluation. Nontenured teachers should be required to go through at least one artifact collection each year. Its use with tenured teachers would be determined by its appropriateness to the goals established between the teacher and the administrator.

The last of the most-recommended sources of data about teaching is classroom observation. The quality of observations and the ways administrators collect and share data with teachers are still the major factors in the success and effectiveness of teacher evaluation systems. Much of the usefulness of observation can be attributed to the fact that it is a learned skill. In reviewing many of the excelent sources available regarding classroom observation (Acheson and Gall 1987, Good and Brophy 1987, Hyman 1986), there appear to be four practical ways for administrators to improve their observation and feedback skills.

1. The reliability and usefulness of classroom observation is directly related to the amount and type of information administrators have before the observation. (This suggests training in the techniques that are embedded in clinical supervision.)

2. The narrower the focus administrators use in observing classrooms, the more likely they will be able to accurately describe the events relating to that focus. (This is an encouragement for goal-setting models and the development of a districtwide framework for teaching that help focus attention on valid teaching behaviors.)

3. The impact of observational data on administrator-teacher relationships is directly related to the way data are recorded during observation. (Observers must learn to record descriptively rather than judgmentally and should be introduced to the different types of observation instruments available.)

4. The impact of observational data on administrator-teacher relation-

ships is directly related to the way feedback is presented to the teacher. (This suggests the need for training in conferencing skills and the ability to write summative evaluations that contain supporting facts for all value terms used.)

Observation has been the dominant method for collecting data about teaching and is a requirement in most goal-setting systems. Because teachers generally accept observations and because it is reasonably reliable (Medley et al. 1984), classroom observation should remain the major source of data used in teacher evaluation. However, districts like Elm Hills must be prepared to provide the necessary training to make it as useful as it can and should be.

Encouragement and training in the use of alternative sources of data is clearly a commonality of most effective evaluation systems. Common sense dictates that the most reliable and valid professional judgments are going to be made by administrators in direct relation to the amount and quality of data available. The three alternatives discussed in some detail are most appropriate within the context of formative evaluation. Taken together, they can provide the fuller, richer picture of performance that is necessary for making summative judgments. Evaluations must ultimately be made on the basis of an administrator's best professional judgments (Popham 1987); the use of a variety of input can help add credibility and reliability to those judgments.

The Nature and Type of Supervisory and Evaluative Feedback

Feedback's importance to the success of an evaluation system is well documented (Acheson and Gall 1987, Duke and Stiggins 1986, Hyman 1986). Unfortunately, the seriousness of this component is often overlooked. The quality and quantity of training available for supervisors has increased dramatically. Without exception, districts like Elm Hills need to be sure to establish a staff development program that is geared directly to the attitudes, knowledge, and skills required to function effectively within their system. Minimally, this means training in the use of the variety of sources of data allowed within the system, the ability to collect accurate data through observation, and, as is suggested in this section, ways of handling written and verbal feedback. Too often, staff development activities are focused on the techniques for data collection only. Yet the actual point of contact between teachers and administrators is not data collection but feedback.

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There are two ways in which districts can assure themselves that they are doing everything possible to direct teacher feedback toward the enhancement of instructional practices. The first involves providing training in productive feedback. It is crucial for administrators to have an overall perspective on the value and the purposes of feedback. In effective evaluation systems, teachers must be involved, encouraged, reinforced, and made to feel successful. Teachers only change their behavior when they want to! As Hunter (1980) indicates, "The same principles of learning apply to teachers as apply to students." The ability to provide accurate and helpful feedback is a learned skill. For example, there are a number of relatively simple concepts that can significantly increase the positive effect of feedback on teachers:

- How to open and close conferences (Kindsvatter and Wilen 1981).
- Where and when conferences should be conducted (Goldhammer et al. 1980).
- Physical arrangements most conducive to effective communications (Hyman 1986).
- Use of direct and indirect supervisory styles (Acheson and Gall 1987).
- How to handle negative feedback (Goldhammer et al. 1980).
- Understanding teachers' different stages of development and the impact this has on the type and nature of feedback (Glickman 1981).
- Different types of supervisory conferences and when they are most appropriate (Hunter 1980).

These examples apply primarily to verbal feedback given to teachers. While not as much attention has been given to written forms of feedback, many of the same principles apply.

One of the major dilemmas faced by administrators is that they are generally required to produce written final evaluations that are clearly summative. The difficulty of this activity is compounded by the fact that virtually all of the training they receive is designed around formative techniques. Administrators are continually reminded to collect data descriptively rather than judgmentally and to provide verbal feedback through clinical models that encourage formative techniques such as collaborative supervision, indirect styles, and problem-solving formats. At the conclusion of the evaluation activity, administrators then find themselves in the predicament of having to use formatively collected data to make summative judgments. Certainly the ability to construct useful narratives based on classroom observations is a skill that would undoubtedly carry over to evaluation reports. But there is an important and obvious difference between descriptive narratives and the use of value terms as required in summative evaluation write-ups.

Borrowing from work originally done in dealing with written critiques in art (Meux 1974), all written and verbal summative feedback should operate from a simple model for valuing. Basically, the simple model suggests that no value statement or value term should be used unless it is accompanied by example, anecdote, illustration, or description. These become the facts to support the value. (See McGreal 1983 for a fuller explanation of the model for providing written or verbal feedback.) The concept allows administrators to use the descriptive data collected during the supervision/evaluation process (the carrying-out of the plans in a goal-setting model) as the facts to support the values that must accompany the summative portion of evaluation.

The second way districts can promote the wise use of feedback is to make sure that the procedures and instruments within the system are conducive to productive feedback. The most frequent inhibitors of productive feedback are the timing and type of feedback that occurs at the end of the evaluation activity and the required instrumentation that shapes the feedback.

In Elm Hills as well as other districts, the final activity of the evaluation experience is the written summative document. It becomes for many teachers their last and usually most vivid contact with the process. Recent experience gives the impression that perhaps this write-up should not be the highlight of the evaluation activity. No written evaluation should ever be composed by the evaluator until after the final conference. Most administrators speak better than they write. Administrators should enter final conferences armed with all the data that have been accumulated throughout the evaluation period—including the original goals, all records of contact between the two that grew out of these goals, and any other data that accumulated as the administrator and teacher interacted. During the analyzing, interpreting, and joint interaction in the conference, the administrator can verbally elaborate on points, use examples, provide nonverbal cues, and generally address issues in a fuller, more expressive and understandable manner than time, space, and ability allow when trying to write the same things. At the conclusion of the conference there can be a joint summing up of what has occurred and what may happen next. The administrator can then write up what was discussed and put it in the teacher's box for review and signature. There should be no surprises for the teacher since everything of importance should have been fully discussed in the conference. Too often, write-ups are read by the teacher before the conference. Since written statements can so easily be misunderstood, the teacher is forced into a defensive posture before the conference is even under way. The highlight of the evaluation experience then becomes the conference, not the content of the write-up. This is a classic example of how little things within the system can have a major impact on the success of the evaluation process.

The second and perhaps most powerful deterrent to productive feedback is a final evaluation document with some form of rating scale. No single idea or concept has been more detrimental to successful teacher evaluation than the rating scale. There are a number of documented reasons for eliminating ratings from teacher evaluation.

- Because rating scales can provide the basis for some numerical score and thus offer some comparative data, they have an air of empiricism or objectivity about them. Actually, rating scales, because of their high-inference nature, are the most subjective of measures (Medley et al. 1984).
- From a measurement perspective, there are severe limitations to the usefulness of rating scales in dealing with performance evaluation. This is primarily due to their general lack of reliability over time (Medley et al. 1984),

their lack of validity (Soar and Soar 1980), and their high susceptibility to the halo effect (Cooper 1981).

- The use of rating scales as a measure of teacher performance turns the criteria into rules rather than guidelines. This is clearly a violation of what the effects research or the Hunter work was designed to be or do (Brandt 1987).
- The presence of rating scales forces comparisons between and among teachers. This situation is especially damaging to administrator-teacher relationships because, with the rare exception of those districts that have some form of compensation plans based on evaluation, the ratings or comparisons are never used and serve no purpose other than to aggravate people once a year (McGreal 1983).
- The criteria upon which most ratings are made do not and cannot offer clear enough specificity to provide any meaningful or reliable discriminations. This is especially true when administrators are asked to rate teachers using multiple positive categories (i.e., superior, excellent, satisfactory). Since every teacher wants to be superior, administrators are continually put in a position of having to provide definitions between superior and excellent. It is virtually a no-win situation for the rater (Medley et al. 1984).

To provide administrators a chance to use feedback in more positive and constructive ways, evaluation write-ups should be based on narratives and not ratings. The narrative format allows more opportunity for clearer explanations of values and a more focused approach to areas that are most relevant for each individual. The narrative provides a less complex and "lighter" approach to evaluation while still providing the opportunity for descriptive problem identification and remedial recommendations. Certainly, training in descriptive writing and practice in the use of facts to support values is crucial. But again, these are learned skills that can be mastered by administrators. Elm Hills must recognize that all of their "defensibility" concerns can be met while constructing a system that allows administrators a chance to build productive, more collaborative relationships with teachers. The use of narratives for final summative judgments is just one more example of how systems can be built to serve different purposes while still complementing the enhancement of instruction.

In reviewing the needed ingredients and the recommended components discussed in this chapter, Elm Hills must continually go back to the fundamental purposes of evaluation. Elm Hills officials must maintain a view of the bigger picture. The impact of teacher evaluation can go far beyond meeting some legal or political requirements. The ingredients and components addressed here deal with the fundamental issue of enhancing classroom instructional practices. Clearly, it is possible to build processes for increasing the level of talk about teaching through the integration of staff development and teacher evaluation. Programs and systems based on these propositions are functioning effectively in schools right now. It does make a difference, and it can in Elm Hills as well.

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DEVELOPMENTAL SUPERVISION: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF A PROMISING MODEL

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Glickman's developmental supervision calls for the instructional leader to use alternative supervisory approaches to help teachers improve their instruction and cognitive growth.[1] In the tactical phase of Glickman's model, the supervisor diagnoses the teacher's conceptual level (CL), then selects the most appropriate supervisory approach. The developmental supervisor initially uses a directive approach (directing and standardizing) with low-CL teachers, a collaborative approach (presenting, problem solving, and negotiating) with moderate-CL teachers, and a nondirective approach (listening, clarifying, encouraging, and reflecting) with high-CL teachers.[2] In the strategic phase of developmental supervision, the supervisor fosters the teacher's growth in CL and problem-solving ability by gradually reducing the structure of the interactions with the teacher while gradually increasing the teacher's decision-making responsibility. The developmental supervisor attempts to move gradually from a directive approach to a collaborative approach and from a collaborative approach to a nondirective approach.[3]

The concept of tactically matching supervisory behaviors to teachers' developmental levels is the basis of the study reported here. In this study, supervisors diagnosed teachers' CL: high, moderate, or low. They attempted to use nondirective approaches with high-CL teachers, collaborative approaches with moderate-CL teachers, and directive approaches with low-CL teachers.

The research on CL indirectly supports developmental supervision. Low-CL teachers have difficulty defining problems, have fewer ways of responding to problems, and want to be shown what to do.[4] The optimal training environment for low-CL teachers is well structured, supportive, and fairly controlling.[5] The environment is similar to the one created in a post-conference where the supervisor uses a directive approach.

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[1] Carl D. Glickman, *Supervision of Instruction: A Developmental Approach*, 2nd ed. (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1990).

[2] Glickman has distinguished an *informational* directive approach in which the supervisor is the major source of information and provides the teacher with restricted choice from a *controlling* directive approach in which the supervisor determines the specific actions the teacher is to follow. For the purpose of this study, the term ***directive approach*** is synonymous with Glickman's informational directive approach. See Carl D. Glickman, *Supervision of Instruction: A Developmental Approach*, 2nd ed. (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1990).

[3] Carl D. Glickman and Stephen P. Gordon, "Clarifying Developmental Supervision," *Educational Leadership* 44 (May 1987): 64–68.

Moderate-CL teachers can define a problem and think of one or two possible solutions, but they have trouble thinking through a comprehensive plan.[6] They are striving for independence and want to solve their own problems, but they usually seek out assistance from others either before or after their initial efforts to solve a problem.[7] A collaborative approach would allow teachers at this stage to share their perceptions and offer some possible alternatives for future action but still receive the benefit of the supervisor's perceptions and proposals. The negotiated action plan made during the collaborative conference would allow teachers to meet their needs of emerging independence. These teachers would have equal responsibility for formulating the plan and would receive the moderate guidance needed to ensure that the plan would lead to improved instruction.

High-CL teachers can view a problem from many perspectives, generate a variety of alternative plans, choose the most appropriate plan, and think through each step.[8] They are autonomous, explorative, and creative.[9] High-CL teachers exhibit high levels of positive instructional behaviors.[10] The personal and professional characteristics of high-CL teachers are theoretically well suited for the teacher self-direction offered by the nondirective supervisory approach.

Although we can logically match teachers' CLs and supervisory approaches, we still need to test the actual effectiveness and success of the matches by researching the supervisor-teacher interaction that occurs when using the developmental model. Ginkel has found no significant relationships between teachers' CL and their preferences for a nondirective, collaborative, or directive style.[11] This study focused on attempts to match supervisor approach to teacher CL during actual post-conferences and on participants' reactions to those post-conferences. The study's research objectives included gathering descriptive data on (1) supervisors' attempts to diagnose teachers' CL, (2) supervisors' effectiveness at using the three supervisory approaches of the developmental model (directive, collaborative, and nondirective), (3) teachers' evaluations of the approaches that were used effectively, and (4) supervisors' evaluations of the approaches that were used effectively and of developmental supervision in general.[12]

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[4] Carl D. Glickman, *Developmental Supervision: Alternative Practices for Helping Teachers Improve Instruction* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981).

[5] Bruce Joyce and Marsha Weil, *Models of Thinking*, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1980).

[6] Carl D. Glickman, *Developmental Supervision: Alternative Practices for Helping Teachers Improve Instruction* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981).

[7] D. E. Hunt, L. F. Butler, J. E. Noy, and M. E. Rosser, *Assessing Conceptual Level by the Paragraph Completion Method* (Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1978).

[8] Carl D. Glickman, *Developmental Supervision: Alternative Practices for Helping Teachers Improve Instruction* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981).

[9] Joyce E. Noy and David E. Hunt, "Student-directed Learning from Biographical Information Systems," *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science* 4 (January 1972): 54–63.

[10] O. J. Harvey, B. Jack White, Misha S. Prather, Richard D. Alter, and James K. Hoffmeister, "Teachers' Belief Systems and Preschool Atmospheres," *Journal of Educational Psychology* 57 (No. 6, 1966): 373–381; David E. Hunt and Bruce R. Joyce, "Teacher Trainee Personality and Initial Teaching Style," *American Educational Research Journal* 7 (November 1970): 529–540.

PARTICIPANTS

Sixteen supervisors enrolled in either graduate supervision courses or supervision workshops in a southeastern and midwestern state voluntarily participated in the study. From the teacher population for which they had supervisory responsibility, each supervisor diagnosed one low-CL teacher, one moderate-CL teacher, and one high-CL teacher. (One supervisor reported having no low-CL teacher.)

In all, 47 teachers agreed to take part in the study's clinical supervision cycles with their participating supervisors. The teachers represented a wide range of schools and teaching situations: urban, suburban, and rural school districts; elementary, middle, and high schools; all traditional content areas; and special education.

SUPERVISORS' TRAINING AND FIELD ACTIVITIES

Participating supervisors attended two 3-hour training sessions. Training activities included a review of the principles and stages of clinical supervision; an overview of the theory of developmental supervision; and skill training in nondirective, collaborative, and directive interpersonal behaviors. Skill training consisted of presentations, videotaped demonstrations, and role-playing with feedback.

The version of clinical supervision selected for the study consisted of seven phases: pre-conference, classroom observation, analysis and planning, post-conference, action plan, follow-up, and post-critique. Supervisors attempted to display a nondirective, collaborative, or directive supervisory approach during the post-conference, depending on the supervisor-perceived teacher CL.

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[11] Katherine C. Ginkel, "An Overview of a Study Which Examined the Relationship between Elementary School Teachers' Preference for Supervisory Conference Approach and Conceptual Level of Development" (paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, April 1983).

[12] This article reviews selected aspects of the study. For a more extensive summary, see Stephen P Gordon, "Developmental Supervision: Supervisor Flexibility and the Post-observation Conference" (paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, March 1989). For the original and most comprehensive report on the study, see Stephen P. Gordon, "The Theory of Developmental Supervision: An Investigation of the Critical Aspects" (doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, 1989).

DATA COLLECTION

Supervisors' Diagnoses of Teachers' CL

To gather data on supervisors' diagnoses of teachers' CL, I administered the Paragraph Completion Method, a semi-projective test designed to measure CL, to each teacher.[14] This test allowed a comparison of supervisors' diagnoses to instrument-measured CL scores. Further, supervisors described in their logs the teacher behaviors on which their CL diagnoses were based.

Supervisors' Effectiveness with Each Approach

All post-conferences were recorded on audiotape. Thus, I could systematically analyze the supervisor behaviors used during each conference to determine the effectiveness of the intended approach. I used the Supervisor-Teacher Interaction Analysis System to analyze supervisor behaviors.

Teachers' Evaluations of the Three Supervisory Approaches

I used three sources of data to determine teachers' reactions to the three supervisory approaches. One source was teachers' written responses to 11 open-ended questions on the post-conference, completed immediately after the post-conference—for example, "How did the post-conference compare to what you expected?" "Are you likely to change your teaching behavior as a result of the post-conference in which you just participated?" "How did you feel during the post-conference in which you just participated?" Completed forms were returned to me in sealed envelopes, and I did not share data from these forms with the supervisors.

A second source was audiotapes of post-critiques involving supervisors and teachers. Post-critique guides, with specific questions for supervisors to ask, converted the post-critiques to standardized open-ended interviews.[15] For example, "Did you discover anything new about your teaching during the post-conference?" "In what ways could I change my style of supervision during post-conferences to be of greater help to you?"

The third source of data was a modified version of a 10-item, 8-point, bipolar semantic differential rating scale developed by Copeland and Atkinson.[15] This instrument allowed teachers to rate their post-conference on the following indicators: time spent in conference, supervisor's expertise, supervisor's comprehension of instructional problem, clarity of communication, supervisor's ability to help, supervisor's genuineness, how the post-conference made them feel, likelihood of asking supervisor for help when in need, and overall satisfaction with post-conference. I did not share the results of these ratings with the supervisors.

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[14] D. E. Hunt, L. F. Butler, J. E. Noy, and M. E. Rosser, *Assessing Conceptual Level by the Paragraph Completion Method* (Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1978).

[15] Michael Q. Patton, *Qualitative Evaluation Methods*, 2nd ed. (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1987).

Supervisors' Evaluation of the Three Supervisory Approaches and Developmental Supervision

I used three sources of data to determine supervisors' reactions to the three supervisory approaches and developmental supervision in general. One source was supervisor logs. Supervisors kept separate logs for the three teachers they supervised. One section of each log contained open-ended items asking supervisors to evaluate the approach in question—for example, "Discuss your feelings during the post-conference," and "Evaluate the clarity of communication during the post-conference."

Another source was supervisors' written evaluations of their teachers' progress toward the instructional improvement objectives set during the post-conferences. Supervisors listed objectives set by each teacher, described follow-up procedures, and recorded their perceptions of whether or not each objective was met.

The third source of data was transcripts of my audiotaped debriefings of the supervisors. I took a general interview-guide approach.[16] The debriefings addressed 10 topics relating to supervisors' evaluation of the three developmental approaches and developmental supervision in general.

DATA ANALYSIS

Supervisors' Diagnoses of Teachers' CL

Each CL diagnosis was compared to the results of the Paragraph Completion Method (PCM). The analysis went beyond comparing CL diagnoses with PCM scores. After an exhaustive review of the research literature, I compared supervisor descriptions of teacher behaviors on which CL diagnoses were based to descriptions found in the literature of teachers functioning at various CLs. For each diagnosis, I determined whether the behavioral indicators on

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[15] Willis D. Copeland and Donald R. Atkinson, "Student Teachers' Perceptions of Directive and Nondirective Supervisory Behavior," *Journal of Educational Research* 71 (January/February 1978): 123–217.

[16] Michael Q. Patton, *Qualitative Evaluation Methods*, 2nd ed. (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1987).

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which the diagnosis was based were consistent with behaviors reported in the literature as characteristic of the diagnosed CL.

Supervisors' Effectiveness with Each Approach

Using the Supervisor-Teacher Interaction Analysis System (STIAS), I analyzed supervisor behaviors during post-conferences. The STIAS was created to classify and code supervisors' and teachers' verbal behaviors. It includes 25 specific verbal behaviors that cluster into more general categories, including directive, collaborative, and nondirective supervisory approaches. The STIAS calls for coding post-conference verbal behavior every three seconds. It yields a directive-to-collaborative-to-nondirective ratio. The STIAS has been measured at up to .98 interrater reliability, and up to .90 interrater reliability. This analysis system determined the predominant supervisory approach that supervisors used in each post-conference. It enabled a comparison of prescribed approach with actual approach to determine supervisors' effectiveness at using the intended approach.

Teachers' Evaluations of the Three Supervisory Approaches

I analyzed teachers' written responses to open-ended questions separately from post-critique transcripts. The procedures were similar for both types of data. The data reduction consisted of coding each complete teacher thought. No predetermined categories were used for coding; categories emerged from the data. A combination of analytic induction and constant comparison was used as new categories were developed, old categories were deleted, teacher thoughts were reassigned to more appropriate categories, and categories were split and merged as coding continued.

The data display consisted of displaying reduced data on a series of matrices that allowed me to identify and compare themes running through teacher perceptions of directive, collaborative, and nondirective supervision. Because supervisory approaches used during the six ineffective post-conferences were not consistent with the developmental model, I did not consider teacher perceptions of these conferences in comparing reactions to the three approaches.

I triangulated the data from teachers' open-ended written and oral reactions to the various supervisory approaches displayed on separate series of matrices. These two types of data were generally consistent with each other. In the few cases where the data conflicted, I gave the open-ended written data more weight because of the confidential manner in which that data was gathered. Using quantitative data derived from responses to the semantic differential rating scale, I verified and supplemented the results of the qualitative analysis and compared item and overall means derived from ratings of directive, collaborative, and nondirective conferences.

Supervisors' Evaluations of the Three Supervisory Approaches and Developmental Supervision

The analysis of supervisors' responses to open-ended questions asked in logs and during debriefing sessions essentially followed the same path as the analysis of teachers' open-ended perceptions. I identified and compared the themes running through supervisors' perceptions of directive, collaborative, and nondirective approaches.

I assigned outcome scores to the action plans designed during post-conferences. The outcome scores were based on supervisors' evaluation reports of teachers' progress toward instructional improvement objectives. A second phase of outcome analysis called for scores to be weighted for degree of difficulty. I compared the means of initial and weighted outcome scores for directive, collaborative, and nondirective conferences. Finally, I triangulated the data from the three sources (logs, evaluations of progress toward objectives, and debriefings).

The latter part of the debriefing sessions dealt with supervisors' evaluations of developmental supervision in general. I displayed the reduced data from relevant portions of the transcripts on a separate series of matrices and identified the themes running through supervisors' perceptions.

RESULTS

Supervisors' Diagnoses of Teachers' CL

Supervisors' diagnoses of teachers' CL tended to disagree with CL measurements from the PCM; only 40.4 percent of the supervisor diagnoses agreed with the instrument-measured CL scores. However, for 85 percent of the diagnoses, descriptions of teachers diagnosed at various CLs were clearly consistent with descriptions of teachers at corresponding CLs reported in the literature.

Supervisor reports on teacher behaviors provided revealing profiles of teachers diagnosed at different CLs. Most low-CL teachers were described as continuously requesting direction from supervisors or other teachers, experiencing serious problems with classroom management, and using a limited repertoire of instructional strategies. Other characteristics were ascribed to smaller numbers of teachers from this group: reluctance to discuss problems, fear of supervision, insecurity, inability to define problems, routine and ineffective responses to chronic problems, inflexibility, rule orientation, and inability to cope with stress.

Most moderate-CL teachers were described as desiring collaborative decision making, becoming more open to suggestions, moving toward independence, and placing a high value on cooperation in the classroom and school. Most of the teachers reportedly had established firm parameters relative to behavioral and academic expectations but had provided alternatives and flexibility within those parameters. Smaller numbers of moderate-CL teachers were described as requesting moderate levels of assistance, being highly personable, placing a high value on amicable relationships with others, and feeling more confident and secure than low-CL teachers.

Most high-CL teachers were perceived as resourceful, creative, innovative, student-centered, and autonomous. Smaller numbers of these teachers were described as highly motivated; fostering an open, warm, and relaxed classroom environment; school leaders; extremely self-confident; highly cooperative; and experiencing few discipline problems.

Supervisors' Effectiveness with Each Approach

Only 1 of the 16 supervisors did not attempt a directive approach. I never received one audiotape of one supervisor attempting a directive approach. One supervisor tried to use the nondirective approach twice. With these anomalies accounted for, I used the STIAS to analyze 14 attempts at directive supervision, 16 efforts at collaborative supervision, and 17 attempts at nondirective supervision. Supervisors who used the directive approach were effective in 13 of 14 attempts. All 16 attempts at collaborative supervision were effective. Of 17 attempts at nondirective supervision, 12 were effective. In all, 41 of 47 planned approaches were effectively carried out.

Teacher's Evaluations of the Three Supervisory Approaches

Teachers involved in effective nondirective, collaborative, and directive post-conferences generally reported highly positive reactions to the supervisory approach. Regardless of the approach used, most teachers reported that they had experienced positive feelings during the conference, predicted that the conference would help them significantly improve their teaching, and said they would prefer that their supervisor use the same approach in future conferences.

When teachers talked about specific supervisor behaviors they valued, some contrasts in reactions to different approaches became apparent. Teachers supervised with a directive approach placed a high value on their supervisor's suggestions for instructional improvement. One teacher said: "I wasn't expecting to get such great ideas. The post-observation conference made me see things in my class I had not seen. It was very helpful." Another teacher had this reaction:

> I'm changing my approach to instruction, [and] the type of materials used, and I'm making myself more aware of positive interactions with students. I've made a turnabout in my teaching because of this observation. I began using the supervisor's suggestions the day of the post-observation conference, right after the meeting.

On the other hand, teachers supervised with a nondirective approach tended to value being given decision-making responsibility. According to one teacher:

> The supervisor asked questions that helped me list possible solutions. . . . Having *me* list suggestions and objectives instead of someone telling me what to do helps. Setting my own goals gives me something to look forward to.

Another teacher said:

> I thought it [the nondirective approach] was very helpful, and I appreciate very much being led to lean upon my own ideas. I feel like it's up to me in a classroom to put things to work. And if someone tells me a specific set of rules, or gives me a prescribed formula for going about doing something, that sort of makes me feel like spontaneity is just done away with. And when you work with pride, you really can't have things that way. So I very much have to be responsible, really responsible, for my own decisions and working out my own problems.

Teachers supervised with a collaborative approach appreciated the supervisor's suggestions, the opportunity to participate in professional dialogue on their instructional problems, and the mutual decision making that took place during the post-conference. These themes point to generally positive teacher evaluations of the three supervisory approaches. A holistic weighing of each teacher's positive, negative, and neutral comments revealed that teachers tended to value collaborative conferences somewhat more than the directive conferences, and the directive conferences somewhat more than the nondirective conferences.

Mean scores derived from the bipolar semantic differential rating scale verified the results of the qualitative analysis; the quantitative ratings reflected highly positive teacher perceptions of all three approaches. The overall means of the collaborative, directive, and nondirective approach were 6.800, 6.385, and 6.333, respectively, on an 8-point scale. The collaborative approach received the highest means on value of time spent in conference, supervisor's expertise, supervisor's comprehension of teacher's problem, productivity of conference, supervisor's ability to help, likelihood of asking supervisor for help when in need, and overall satisfaction with conferences. The directive approach was rated highest in clarity of communication and supervisor's genuineness. The nondirective approach was rated highest on how the post-conference made the teacher feel.

Supervisors' Evaluations of the Three Supervisory Approaches and Developmental Supervision

The supervisors generally conveyed highly positive perceptions of each type of effective conference. Most supervisors who carried out effective directive, collaborative, and nondirective conferences expressed confidence that they had, in fact, effectively carried out the intended approach. A perception of effectiveness was one indicator of positive value for the approach being evaluated.

Because supervisors perceived themselves as effective, they did not necessarily feel equally comfortable during each post-conference. Most supervisors who effectively used the directive approach said they felt uncomfortable being directive. The primary reason reported for the discomfort was a supervisory orientation in conflict with directive supervision. One supervisor mirrored the feelings of the majority: "It is difficult for me to be directive. I operate from a collaborative [orientation], and I really want teacher feedback. This was an experienced and competent teacher. It was awkward trying to be directive." Many supervisors who felt uncomfortable with the directive approach reported that their discomfort lessened as the conference continued and the teacher responded positively to the approach. The supervisor quoted above also said: "Once I got into the conference, the teacher was interested in direction. So it was easy for me to give directions, because she wanted specific things."

Supervisors were split in their reports on level of comfort with the nondirective approach. Half of the effective nondirective supervisors said they were at ease throughout the nondirective conference. One supervisor said: "I thoroughly enjoyed it. I learned new approaches to increasing children's thinking levels. I felt she was teaching me." The remaining supervisors said they felt either uncomfortable or frustrated during the nondirective post-conference. One supervisor expressed his frustration as follows:

> I had to be constantly aware of the nondirective approach. A few times I had to bite my tongue to keep from adding comments. I felt a little frustrated in that the teacher asked for my advice, but I turned it into a question for her.

Another supervisor who had been nondirective said: "I wanted more input. I wanted to step in and suggest summer school and some other alternatives."

Most supervisors reported feeling at ease throughout their collaborative post-conference. Reasons for feeling comfortable during collaboration varied, including the teacher seemed unthreatened; the teacher was receptive; the approach was easy to use; the supervisor was excited about the approach; and the supervisor felt confident, effective, and successful.

Despite the expressions of discomfort during directive and nondirective post-conferences, most supervisors considered the clarity of communication during each effective conference good or excellent. For all three types of conferences, effective supervisors said that, in retrospect, they considered the approach used to be appropriate for the teacher. A theme running through perceptions of each approach was that teachers responded positively to the supervisor's approach. One supervisor discussed a teacher's reaction to the directive approach:

> [The teacher] was at a loss as to what to do and wanted specific directions for a plan of action. . . . She was *very* receptive to what was being said. It was as if she was hanging onto every word, because she was desperate for the advice that I was offering.

Supervisors discussing teacher reactions consistently remarked that teachers involved in collaborative post-conferences shared ideas and accepted input well. Supervisors talking about teachers involved in nondirective conferences repeatedly stated that the teacher had "carried the conference." One supervisor said, "The teacher took the presentation of [observation] data and interpreted it for herself, set an appropriate higher level objective, and devised three actions to achieve objectives and help her with formal evaluation." Another supervisor, initially suspicious of the nondirective approach, said:

> I was sure the teacher was of high CL, but I really wondered if the process worked. As she began to talk and I reviewed the [observation] data, I was amazed at her responses and interpretation. . . . I asked her perceptions of the class, and she just started rattling off, and it worked! I was able to ask her to expand on several things that she started, and it just went real well. I felt she was comfortable. I felt she was *insightful.* When I presented my data to her, it was like, "O.K., I didn't pick up on that. That's interesting." She asked for a follow-up observation, which surprised me a little bit. She said, "There's no way I could gather this kind of data myself."

Another indicator of supervisors' value for particular approaches was their perceptions of teachers' cooperation during action plans emerging from post-conferences. A theme running through supervisors' perceptions of each effective approach was that the teacher seriously tried to improve instruction. One supervisor's perception of a collaborative teacher's response was typical of supervisors' perceptions of all three groups of teachers:

> I could not have asked for better cooperation. She was open about possible solutions, and she gave her time for all the work. She had thought out what would result when she tried my suggestions. She really tried to implement the objectives.

I asked supervisors which of the three approaches they planned to use in the future. Most who had carried out the collaborative approach, a narrow majority of those who had been effectively nondirective, and just under half of those who had effectively used the directive approach said they would definitely use those approaches regularly in the future. Some supervisors who had been effectively directive and nondirective said they would probably not use those approaches in an initial conference with a teacher but would eventually use the two approaches with a few teachers. One supervisor said that she probably never would use the directive approach in the future.

In general, supervisors positively evaluated all three approaches. A holistic weighing of each supervisor's positive, negative, and neutral open-ended responses revealed that supervisors tended to value collaborative conferences somewhat more than nondirective conferences, and nondirective conferences somewhat more than directive conferences.

Means of outcome scores assigned to supervisor reports on teacher progress toward instructional improvement objectives indicated that teachers involved in each type of conference achieved a high level of progress. In contrast to the open-ended data, outcome means were highest for the nondirective approach, and second highest for the collaborative approach. Outcome means were third highest for the directive approach. These rankings remained the same when the outcome scores were weighted for difficulty of improvement objectives.

In terms of supervisor evaluation of developmental supervision in general, nearly all supervisors expressed either generally or extremely positive overall perceptions of the model and considered the use of alternative supervisory approaches vital to the success of the post-conferences. Nearly all said they planned to use the basic strategies of developmental supervision.

CONCLUSIONS

Supervisors' Diagnoses of Teachers' CL

The level of accuracy assigned to supervisors' diagnoses of teachers' CL depends on the criterion for accuracy. If the criterion is a match of supervisor diagnosis with the teacher's PCM-measured CL, then supervisor accuracy was low (40.4 percent). On the other hand, if the criterion is a match of diagnosis with observed teacher behaviors that are consistent with descriptions of teachers at the diagnosed CL found in the literature, then supervisor accuracy was fairly high (85 percent). Perhaps many supervisor diagnoses were inconsistent with PCM scores because, in many cases, the PCM correctly measured the teacher's *general* CL, and the supervisor correctly diagnosed the teacher as acting at a different CL in the *specific* educational situation observed. This explanation is consistent with CL theory.[17]

Supervisors' Effectiveness with Each Approach

Of all attempted approaches, 87.2 percent were used, suggesting that supervisors generally were highly effective during the post-conference. The results showing that 92.8 percent of the attempted directive approaches and 100 percent of the attempted collaborative approaches were used indicate that supervisors were extremely effective at using those approaches. The results showing that 70.6 percent of attempted nondirective attempts were effective indicate more difficulty with using that approach. Some supervisors' ineffectiveness at nondirective supervision may have been due to insufficient training in the nondirective approach, not a lack of potential to use that style.

Teachers' Evaluations of the Three Supervisory Approaches

Although teachers conveyed generally positive perceptions of all three supervisory approaches, their responses to nondirective supervision were somewhat less positive than their reactions to directive and collaborative supervision. Perhaps teachers are simply not used to being given decision-making responsibility during post-conferences.[18] Teachers expressed generally positive reactions to all three supervisory approaches, a result that supports the theory of developmental supervision and contradicts those maintaining that there is one best approach to supervising all teachers.

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[17] O. J. Harvey, David Hunt, and Harold Schroder, *Conceptual Systems and Personality Organization* (New York: Wiley & Sons, 1961).

Supervisors' Evaluations of the Three Supervisory Approaches and Developmental Supervision

The pattern of supervisors responding most positively to the collaborative approach may have been due partially to a bias in favor of collaboration expressed by nearly all supervisors during the training sessions. Glickman may have explained the tendency toward a collaborative orientation: "Collaboration appears to be the democratic way of doing things. Most of us have been schooled in equality and democracy, and collaboration appears to be democracy in action."[19]

Compared to the other two approaches, supervisors responded somewhat less positively to the directive approach. Initial bias against the directive approach, expressed by most supervisors during training, is one possible explanation for this result. Or perhaps teachers matched with a directive approach in many cases are more difficult to supervise than other teachers. In other words, a directive approach may be the best possible match for low-CL teachers, but still it may not lead supervisors to the same level of success as the collaborative and nondirective approaches do with moderate- and high-CL teachers. Supervisor evaluations of the directive approach were sufficiently positive to consider it a viable, promising supervisory approach.

Many supervisors said they would be cautious and selective in their future use of the directive and nondirective approaches, a finding consistent with the theory of developmental supervision. Glickman, for example, has suggested that the directive approach might be appropriate initially for 5 to 10 percent of teachers, and the nondirective approach for 10 to 20 percent of teachers, in a typical school.[20]

In summary, supervisors' perceptions of all three approaches were consistent with the theory of developmental supervision. Their evaluations of developmental supervision in general were highly positive.

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[18] Arthur Blumberg and Philip Cusick, "Supervisor-Teacher Interaction: An Analysis of Verbal Behavior," *Education* 91 (September/October 1970): 126–134.

[19] Carl D. Glickman, *Supervision of Instruction: A Developmental Approach*, 2nd ed. (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1990).

[20] Carl D. Glickman, *Developmental Supervision: Alternative Practices for Helping Teachers Improve Instruction* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981).

RECOMMENDATIONS

Supervisor Training

The 6 hours of supervisor training in developmental supervision was less than optimal; I suggest at least 12 hours of training, implemented in four 3-hour sessions. I recommend that supervisors receive more extensive training in diagnosing teachers' CL. This training might include viewing scenarios of teachers on videotape or reading written descriptions of teacher behaviors before diagnosing teachers' CL. Feedback and discussion would follow practice at diagnosing teacher CL. I also recommend more extensive discussion of rationales for using the various approaches and more extensive role-playing of and coaching in the three approaches, with special attention given to the nondirective approach.

Research

The results of this initial study of developmental supervision are sufficiently promising to warrant more extensive studies of the model. One study might involve using directive, collaborative, and nondirective approaches with each participating teacher, then comparing the effects of each approach on low-, moderate-, and high-CL teachers; CL experts would determine each teacher's CL. Outcome measures would include supervisors' and teachers' perceptions of the approaches' success, as well as objective measures of instructional improvement.

A quasi-experimental study might involve four equivalent groups of teachers, each divided into three subgroups of equal size. One subgroup of each group would consist of high-CL teachers, one of moderate-CL teachers, and one of low-CL teachers; CL experts would determine each teacher's CL. Members of each group could be selected using stratified random-selection procedures. Supervisors would attempt a nondirective approach with all teachers (all CL subgroups) in one group, a collaborative approach with all teachers in the second group, and a directive approach with all teachers in the third group. Finally, teachers in the fourth group would receive no supervision. This design would allow a comparison of the effects of each approach, and of no supervision, on teachers of each CL group. Outcome measures would be supervisors' and teachers' perceptions of the approaches' success, as well as objective measures of instructional improvement.

Practice

I recommend that only supervisors who show a philosophical commitment to the developmental model and who volunteer to participate in a developmental program be expected to use developmental supervision. Formal training in developmental supervision is essential for all supervisors, and more specialized and intensive training should be provided for supervisors who are themselves functioning at less than a moderately high CL. I recommend a program of ongoing support for supervisors using developmental supervision.

Despite the low level of agreement between supervisors' diagnoses of teacher CL and PCM-measured teacher CL, I recommend that supervisors base their diagnoses of teacher CL on their observations of and interactions with teachers. If a supervisor is unsure of a teacher's CL, I recommend a collaborative approach for the initial post-conference with the teacher. How the teacher responds to the collaborative approach in the initial conference can then become the basis for deciding which approach to use in the next post-conference.

Finally, I recommend that instructional leaders using developmental supervision must be allowed the flexibility to adapt the model—to mix and match alternative supervisory approaches—to meet the unique needs of individual teachers.

FINAL COMMENTS

Like most exploratory studies, the research reported here has raised as well as answered questions on the subject of investigation. Although much more research needs to be carried out, the theory of developmental supervision is potentially of enormous value to supervisors, teachers, and ultimately, students. A theory with such potential deserves the serious examination of theoreticians, researchers, and practitioners. I urge educational leaders who sense the potential of this theory to join in the continuing exploration of developmental supervision.[21]

STEPHEN P. GORDON is Assistant Professor, Curriculum and Supervision, College of Education, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802.

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[21] *Editor's Note.* This study received the 1989 Outstanding Dissertation Award in the supervision category from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

3. *Writings by Members of the Superintendents' Leadership Council*

3. Writings by Members of the Superintendents' Leadership Council

The following section reflects the writings from Superintendents who have been actively involved in the New England Superintendents' Leadership Council. The MRC has co-sponsored Superintendents' meetings, regional planning efforts and conferences. Through this facilitation and continued support, the enclosed articles show a major commitment by several New England Superintendents to address he growing needs of LEP students.

THE INNOVATOR

A Publication of The New England Superintendents' Leadership Council
and The New England MRC / Brown University

Volume 2, No. 3 Fall 1993

Changing Demographics and Teacher Preparation for the Future: A Rhode Island Perspective

by John DeGoes,
Superintendent of Schools,
East Providence, RI

One of the greatest challenges facing public education in the United States is designing effective programs for the rapidly changing school-age population. This student population is, more than ever, representing a wider variety of language and cultural backgrounds and abilities. Students are entering school at different grade levels and with varying degrees of English proficiency. They come with diverse educational, cultural, and linguistic experiences which impact upon their successful entry into a new school system.

In this Issue:

Changing Demographics and Teacher Preparation................1
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Not only for ethical concerns, but from an economic standpoint, we must ensure that all children who enter our school systems receive an equitable and quality education. We need to do whatever is necessary to respond appropriately to our increasingly heterogeneous student population. Our nation's growing diversity is one of our greatest assets.

In order to effectively meet this challenge, colleges and universities must develop or refine the current teacher preparation and training programs to equip professionals with the necessary tools to successfully respond to the needs of language minority children from pre-kindergarten through grade twelve. Teacher preparation programs must not just provide the theoretical foundation, but must also show how to apply the theory to actual classroom practice. This means that institutions of higher education must work closely with local school districts with language minority student populations and provide student teachers with the opportunity to put into practice what they have learned. It is in the transferring of that theoretical knowledge base to actual practice that student teachers need the greatest amount of support. Ironically, this is precisely where we fail them. Because teachers are the key players in reforming our education system, preparing the best professionally trained staff to make a difference is critical in the early stages of their educational careers.

In Rhode Island, the Board of Regents for Elementary and Secondary Education, on November 14, 1991 adopted new regulations for English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers. Instead of allowing only elementary and secondary English certified teachers to be eligible for an ESL teaching endorsement after the successful completion of three courses, the new regulations allow early childhood, special education, secondary content-area, foreign language teachers and other specialists to become eligible for certain types of ESL endorsements. The coursework has also increased to include the following: Introduction to English Linguistics, Curriculum and Methods for ESL Programs, Second Language Assessment and Evaluation, Socio-Cultural Foundations of ESL Education, Second Language Literacy for LEP Learners, and Theories of First and Second Language Acquisition.*

In addition to coursework, those seeking an ESL endorsement to teach ESL versus

(continued on pg.3)

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Newport '93

The 5th Annual Superintendents' Summer Institute was held in Newport, RI on June 23-25. The Institute, which was co-sponsored by The New England Superintendents' Leadership Council, Project CARES (Brown University), The New England MRC and the six New England State Departments of Education, was attended by over one hundred superintendents from the region. In addition, New England Commissioners of Education, MRC Directors and superintendents from other parts of the country, and representatives from the US Department of Education participated.

The opening presentation on Wednesday evening was by Peter McWalters, Rhode Island Commissioner of Education, who spoke about "The State's Role in Integrating the LEP Agenda into Educational Reform Initiatives." On Thursday, then Acting Deputy Director of OBEMLA, Gilbert N. Garcia provided a national overview of educational reform and the LEP learner. Other presentations included:

- State Commissioners' forum discussing "The Impact of Restructuring on LEP Populations"
- Dr. Gordon Cawelti, Executive Director of The Alliance for Curriculum Reform speaking on "Equity, Diversity, and Models for Change"
- Massachusetts Attorney General Scott Harshbarger offering information on "Building Constructive Diversity in Communities"
- Numerous panels, focus groups, and working sessions in which members of the Superintendents' Council, along with their counterparts from outside the region, interacted with presenters and applied information to their own situations.

In two special pre-Institute sessions, new participants received an orientation, and out-of-region participants were briefed on strategies for establishing Superintendents' Councils in their own regions.

The evaluations of the Institute by attendees were excellent, as were the numerous suggestions for next year's Institute. Superintendents who have attended the Institute for several years cited significant changes in their districts since joining the Superintendents' Leadership Council.

Promising Practices

Record number of OBEMLA Projects in Maine

Three more federal grants under ESEA Title VII have been awarded to Maine school systems, bringing to eleven, the number of OBEMLA funded projects in the state this year. A first-ever project serving migrant Latino children in Maine received a transitional bilingual education grant for Project IMPACT for 66 children K-12. Eighty refugee pre-school children will benefit from two grants awarded to the Portland City Schools, one under the Special Populations Program, the other under the Special Alternative Instructional Program.

Currently funded continuatio programs include bilingual education grants in Maine Indian Education (Passamaquoddy), and one in Maine's St. John Valley (French). There is one five-district consortium for an ESL summer school through South Portland and one four-district consortium for K-12 ESL through Kennebunk. Portland also has three other Projects.

Grants currently awarded to Maine approach $1,400,000.

Congratulations to our colleages in Maine!!!

Noteworthy

The New England Desegregation Assistance Center

The New England Desegregation Assistance Center for Equity in Education (the Equity Center), located at Brown University, is one of ten regional desegregation assistance centers funded nationally by the U.S. Department of Education. The Equity Center began operating at Brown University on July 1, 1993.

The overarching purpose of the Equity Center is to provide training and technical assistance to school districts throughout the six New England states in activities related to race, sex, and national origin desegregation, including efforts to ensure equity in the provision of educational programs and services.

The Equity Center's goals are to:

- ensure the highest level of academic achievement by all students regardless of race, sex, or national origin by assisting in the preparation, adoption and implementation of desegregation plans, and in the development of effective methods of addressing special education problems occasioned by desegregation
- support local capacity building efforts to ensure equity and quality education for minority students by establishing model "train the trainer" teams in targeted communities
- disseminate "state of the art" equity practices and problem resolution strategies through regional Equity Leadership Teams composed of school boards and superintendents
- encourage community participation in the resolution of equity issues
- promote partnerships between school and university staff to stimulate the introduction and testing of research based equity ideas in the classroom.

To achieve its goals, the Equity Center provides direct consultation and technical assistance, staff and community-based workshops, and regional seminars and conferences. Staff of The Equity Center work in cooperation with state departments of education.

The Equity Center is housed in the same building as The **New England MRC at 144 Wayland Ave, Providence, RI 02906 (401-351-7577) (Fax-401-351-9594). John Correiro is the Director of the Center, Dianne Curran is Assistant Director, and the Equity Coordinators are: Loel Greene, Graciela Hopkins, and Merlene Samuels.**

***(Teacher Preparation** continued from pg.1)*
those seeking an ESL endorsement to teach content-area subjects through an ESL approach, must complete a forty-five hour practicum in an ESL program. The new regulations also established an ESL Specialist certificate for servicing all grades.

While these new requirements are indicative of the need for more training in the field of second language acquisition,as superintendents, we must encourage all classroom teachers, specialists, guidance counselors, and administrators to participate in programs of study which include training on the nature of second language learning and cross-cultural issues. It is not only the improvement of instruction for limited English proficient students that is at issue, but more importantly, the very nature of the school environment where all children, regardless of their backgrounds, are welcomed, valued, and made to feel an integral part of the curriculum. By holding high expectations and providing the programs and services that will enable all children to achieve high academic standards, we will also be removing negative labels that inhibit student achievement. The true challenge can be met if all parties (higher education, state departments of education, New England MRC, New England Desegregation Assistance Center, New England Superintendents' Leadership Council and local school districts) begin to collaborate with the goal of maximizing resources and providing the best training opportunities for current and future educators.

*Not all these courses are required for all the different types of ESL endorsements.

COUNCIL ACTIVITY UP-DATE

June 23-25, 1993 -
Fifth Annual Superintendents' Summer Institute, Newport, RI
June 28-30, 1993 -
Bridgeport, CT - Academy Follow-up: Planning Retreat
July 19-21, 1993 -
Leadership Council presentation to Florida State Superintendents' Association, Sanibel Island, FL
September 17, 1993 -
Springfield, MA - Academy Follow-up: Release day for planning
October 15-17 -
Superintendents' Leadership Council Advisory Board Meeting. (Ana Maria Garcia of OBEMLA participates)
October 25, 1993 -
Rhode Island Superintendents state meeting, Warwick, RI
October 26, 1993 -
New England MRC Title VII Regional Workshop for LEP Directors, Sturbridge, MA
November 3-4, 1993 -
Superintendents' Leadership Council presentation to Minnesota State Superintendents' Association, Bloomington, MN
November 20, 1993 -
Participation by Council member at Community Forum held by the New Hampshire Advisory Committee to the US Commission on Civil Rights, Bedford, NH
December 3, 1993 -
Maine State Superintendents' Meeting, Portland, ME
December 13, 1993 -
Rhode Island State Superintendents' Meeting, Warwick, RI
December 16, 1993 -
New Hampshire State Superintendents' Meeting, Concord, NH

Looking Ahead

January 21, 1994 -
Superintendents' Leadership Council Advisory Board Meeting, Boston, MA

March 29-30, 1994 -
Second Superintendents' Leadership Academy for Teachers, Brown University, Providence, RI.

New England Superintendents' Leadership Council
A Consortium for Educating Language Minority Students

Advisory Board

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Bridgeport, CT
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THE INNOVATOR

A Publication of The New England Superintendents' Leadership Council and The New England MRC / Brown University

Volume 3, No. 1 Winter 1994

An Update on ESEA Reauthorization and the Impact on LEP Students

by James Connelly, Superintendent of Schools, Bridgeport, CT

As of this writing, the Reauthorization of ESEA has been passed by the Education Committee of the House of Representatives. The Clinton Administration is to be commended for the changes in philosophy and service delivery it is proposing for Chapter I. The Administration's bill changes Chapter I from a remedial program to one that provides enriched, accelerated instruction based on high expectations and high academic achievement for all students. Furthermore, the eligibility criteria for Chapter I services eliminate the existing and perceived barriers which have restricted LEP student participation.

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The Administration's bill also emphasizes school-wide Chapter I programs which coordinate Chapter I programs and services with other educational, health and social services and allows all students in the school to benefit from services. It targets monies to where the needs are the greatest so that sufficient resources can make a difference. Ongoing intensive staff development activities and increased parent involvement are considered top Chapter I priorities.

Under the Administration's proposal, states and local education agencies must have in place, or be developing, a *Goals 2000* plan in order to receive Chapter I funds.

Regarding Title VII reauthorization (bilingual education act), the Administration's proposal did not follow the recommendation of the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) to consolidate Title VII with Chapter I. Instead, Title VII will remain a freestanding, competitive, discretionary grant program focused on increasing the capacity of schools to better serve LEP students and their families.

The Administration's proposal for Title VII reauthorization also incorporates three of the four-part superstructure recommended by the Congressional Hispanic Caucus:

- Part A which authorizes grants for the development and enhancement of educational programs for LEP students and their families;
- Part C which authorizes training programs; and
- Part D which governs the administration of Title VII.

While the Administration has not recommended increasing the resources available under Title VII or providing non-competitive entitlements to districts with large percentages of LEP students as proposed by groups such as the New England Superintendents' Leadership Council, the fact that it was not consolidated with Chapter I recognizes the unique needs of LEP students. The Administration also agrees that more LEP students will be served under Chapter I because of eligibility changes being proposed.

Only Part B of the Congressional Hispanic Caucus' proposal which called for the continuation of a national network of Title VII funded centers was not incorporated into the last draft of the Administration's proposal.

(continued on pg. 3)

Save the Date!: Newport '94

The Sixth Annual Superintendents' Summer Institute will be held in Newport, RI on June 29-July 1, 1994. The Institute is co-sponsored by The New England Superintendents' Leadership Council, Project CARES (Brown University), The New England MRC, The New England DAC and the six New England State Departments of Education. More than one hundred superintendents from the Region, New England Commissioners of Education, MRC Directors and Superintendents from other Regions of the country and representatives from the US Department of Education will attend.

Dr. Dudley Flood, Executive Director of the North Carolina Association of School Administrators will address the Institute preceding dinner on Wednesday evening, June 29th. On Thursday, the keynote speaker, **Dr. Eugene Garcia**, Director of OBEMLA, in the US Department of Education, will discuss **"Equity, Reform and the Language Minority Agenda."** Commissioners of the six New England states have been invited to provide their state's perspective on Dr. Garcia's comments. Focus groups will be convened for more in-depth discussion with commissioners and superintendents on the issues raised by Dr. Garcia.

The Institute will provide an opportunity to preview major changes in federal legislation that will impact on the integration of programs and services that target LEP populations. An additional focus will include articulation among these programs and the full range of educational funding available to school districts.

If you have not received your letter of invitation, or if you require further information, please contact Nancy Levitt- Vieira at The New England MRC, (401) 274-9548.

Promising Practices

Video Project for LEP Students in New Hampshire

The New Hampshire ESL teachers network, in cooperation with the Salem School District, is producing a video tape of effective program strategies for limited English proficient students in the state of New Hampshire. Several of the teachers from the network have been involved in preparing the video tape script and arranging for taping to occur at the various schools. A final draft of the script is currently being written and editing of voice overs will be completed within the next several weeks.

The purpose of this project is to increase the understanding of what is necessary for providing equal educational opportunities for limited English proficient students among the general population of New Hampshire. It is anticipated that this tape would provide the information necessary for districts to improve their identification efforts as well as increase their knowledge of educational and social policies that will enhance learning for language minority children. Ultimately, the sharing of information should also increase an understanding of the methods needed to address the needs of exceptional LEP students as well as the process of second language acquisition.

The project, while focusing on current conditions in New Hampshire schools, will also address the changing demographics in the state. In so doing, it is anticipated that school districts will be able to engage in meaningful reform which will meet the needs of a diverse student population.

(continued from pg. 1)

The Administration's proposal continues to consolidate the existing 48 categorical technical assistance centers, including the Title VII funded Multifunctional Resource Centers (MRCs), into 15 "Comprehensive Technical Assistance Centers".These TACs will have responsibility for providing a broad range of regional services to "LEP, migrant, immigrant, neglected or delinquent, homeless, Indian, disabled, Alaskan native, and native Hawaiian" students.

Also incorporated is a focus on safe and drug-free schools, applications of technology and professional development for school staff to assist all students in meeting state performance standards. As superintendent of a school district with a significant percentage of language minority student enrollment, this move to consolidate the Title VII Multifunctional Resource Centers (MRCs) must be monitored carefully. The particular expertise that staff at the MRCs has in the areas of first and second language acquisition and cross cultural issues is extremely valuable to us and our staff, especially when school reform agendas are now clearly focusing on diversity issues. The Administration needs to move very cautiously to ensure that LEP student needs continue to be addressed.

Noteworthy

The Education Alliance

for Equity in the Nation's Schools

The Education Alliance for Equity in the Nation's Schools is an organization based at Brown University that responds to the needs of diverse student populations in the public schools. Believing that language, culture, and diversity are fundamental to the success of educational reform, the Alliance creates partnerships with educators, policy-makers, researchers, and business and community agencies to promote:

Advocacy at the national and local level
Leadership training for superintendents and staff
Language and culture curriculum designs
Inclusionary program models and practices
Action research and publications
Networkings and conference sponsorship
Capacity building and course offerings to enhance diversity
Educational reform initiatives

The Alliance's commitment to equity is demonstrated through an array of initiatives supported by federal, state, local and private foundation funding. These include: **The New England Multifunctional Resource Center for Language and Culture in Education, The New England Desegregation Assistance Center for Equity in Education, The Superintendents' Leadership Council**, Masters Program in Cross-Cultural Studies, ESL and Bilingual Education, Principals' Congresses, Summer Institutes, Training Academies, *The Innovator*, The Education Alliance Press, etc.

The Education Alliance is headquartered at Brown University, 144 Wayland Avenue, Providence, Rhode Island 02906. For further information on any one of the initiatives of the Alliance, write to the Brown University address, or call The Education Alliance at (401) 274-9548 or (401) 351-7577.

COUNCIL ACTIVITY UP-DATE

Winter 1993 - 1994

November 20, 1993 -
New Hampshire Council members participated in a Community Forum (Bedford, NH), sponsored by the NH State Advisory Committee to the US Office of Civil Rights

December 3, 1993 -
Maine State Superintendents' Meeting, Portland, ME

December 13, 1993 -
Rhode Island State Superintendents' Meeting, Warwick, RI

December 17, 1993 -
New Hampshire State Superintendents' Meeting, Concord, NH

January 24, 1994 -
Rhode Island State Superintendents' Meeting, Warwick, RI.
Presentation entitled "Research and Curriculum Development Update" presented by Superintendent David Heimbecker, North Providence Public Schools.

February 10, 1994 -
1993 Superintendents' Academy team from Bridgeport, CT meets to plan for follow-up activities.

February 16, 1994 -
Presentation on Superintendents' Leadership Council made at NABE Conference, Los Angeles, CA

March 2, 1994 -
Connecticut State Superintendents' Meeting, New Haven, CT

March 3, 1994 -
Massachusetts State Superintendents' Meeting, MABE Conference, Leominster, MA

Looking Ahead

March 29-30, 1994 -
Superintendents' Leadership Academy for Teachers (Follow-up), Brown University, Providence, RI.
May 13, 1994 -
Superintendents' Leadership Council Advisory Board Meeting, Boston, MA
June 29 - July 1, 1994 -
Sixth Annual Superintendents' Summer Institute, Newport, Rhode Island

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Volume 3, No. 2

Spring 1994

The Dis-equalizing Impact of Standardized Testing On Language-Minority Children

by J. Brian Smith

Many language-minority children in the United States are being given dis-equalized services by schools through inappropriate test screening. In this writer's view, school placement decisions predicated on tests given in the English language to language-minority children who are not demonstrably fluent English bilingual are both irresponsible and immoral. Children so affected should be able to invoke habeas corpus, thereby holding school officials accountable for their wrongful imprisonment.

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Such words do not constitute irresponsible hyperbole! This writer is convinced that readers becoming indignant over conclusions such as these have simply never felt the sting of biased testing, nor experienced the heartbreak, personal devastation, and loss of self-esteem spawned by school placements made every day resulting from inappropriate, culturally and linguistically, biased testing. Such indignation has no impact, whatsoever, on the fact that such bogus placements are taking place.

This discussion is intended to remind readers that the educational issues of language minority pupils are complex indeed. It is crucial that readers consider the paradigms of cultural pluralism and multicultural/bilingual education at the outset of this discussion to acquire an essential foundation and historical context for the national struggle being carried out by advocates of language minority pupils and their multi-cultural identities. If the best educational interests of LEP children are to be served, well-informed testing and placement practices must be used used in today's schools. For it is essential that we investigate, and come to recognize, one of the most powerful tools responsible for disenfranchising LEP youngsters: culturally and linguistically biased tests! No instrument of the status quo more adversely impacts language minority children, either intentionally or inadvertently, than test bias when used as a medium of social engineering. There are those who will say that "...our intentions are good!" But the net result is the same: inappropriate testing discrimination is discrimination misused, no matter how it comes about.

It is a fact that America's school departments live at the mercy of the United States Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) with respect to non-English speaking, and limited English proficient pupils entering the country. There is little or no coordination between the INS and the Federal Department of Education for assisting recent immigrant children in coping with life in the new (to them) culture, or in the English language; nor has Congress lived up to its responsibility for providing adequate funding for the appropriate transition of school-age children from a foreign language and culture to the level of fluent bilingualism required for developing a successful life in a new society. (Many experts believe that five to seven years of instructional experience are required for developing true fluent-bilingualism. The three years required by many state and federal agencies for acquiring English competency makes a mockery of this fact.

(Continued on page 2)

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Neither, should we overlook the fact that the United States has many indigenous language-minority pupils in myriads of ethnic and cultural mosaics, not the least of which are the Native American children who are ill-served by biased tests designed to be used in the dominant non-Indian culture.

When these language minority children arrive at their neighborhood schools, more often than not they are given tests to determine their fluency in English. Too frequently, such children are improperly assessed for school placement, by school employees with little or no knowledge of the child's first language and culture of birth. Such placement assessments are often carried out with testing instruments biased in favor of English fluent pupils, and the resulting placements bear little resemblance to program schedules that might more properly occur if language-appropriate assessment and thoughtful guidance service were made part of the enrollment procedures. Also, since monies are scarce in many school districts for dealing with bilingual or limited English proficient (LEP) issues, all too frequently students are summarily dumped into the ranks of special education where funds can be more easily accessed.

What is biased testing? This author, in another work on testing bias (Smith, *A Study of Item Bias in the Maine Educaitonal Assessment Test.* Chestnut Hill, MA, 1993), indicates that "...bias is the presence of some characteristic of a test item that results in differential performance of two individuals or two groups, of equal ability, but from different subgroups." People who work with tests, must not confuse the concepts involved in the three terms: bias, discrimination, and fairness. Tests by definition discriminate on one basis or another. Without such discrimination, life in an information-rich society would be unimaginable. But as has been shown, tests can also be biased in that the criterion being tested may treat one subgroup differently from another. In this discussion, an appreciation of how tests can discriminate, coupled with reliable methods of looking for item bias, can raise the probability that a test is fair with respect to the purposes of that test, and to the uses of the information gained from giving the test in the first place. Otherwise, it is possible that such item bias could lead to a very different definition of discrimination,.a definition which could include unfortunate concepts such as bigotry, intolerance, prejudice, preference, judgment. Such use of testing must be recognized, analyzed, and adjustments made if testing equity is to be achieved. Concepts of social justice and fairness inexorably impact discussions like this,.moral philosophy notwithstanding. Realistic and necessary discrimination forming the basis of all manner of decision making, is and will continue to be, based on testing - unbiased testing - which must and should serve children in equitable ways.

Where should we go from here? Our discussion indicates, then, that there must be much dialogue in American educational circles around the cross-cultural concerns of bilingual/multicultural education and the rights of children from language minority populations. Surely non-biased cross-cultural assessment ought to be a topic uppermost in the minds of psychometricians as they strive to better serve their increasingly multicultural clientele.

This author has examined bias in testing as an impact area within the paradigms of cultural pluralism and multicultural/bilingual education as such bias might impact screening and placement tests. Given the compelling demographics in the United States today... the culturally pluralistic framework of our society... one would hope for high levels of cultural and linguistic sensitivity among experts developing tests appropriate for all America's pupils, not just the English speaking pupils.

Since upwards of forty states are now mandating accountability tests, and all states are finding it necessary to deal with LEP youngsters, and indeed, since the federal government is considering national educational accountability testing, it seems imperative that we explore the question of how the language minority status of many millions of students is impacted, performance-wise, on school accountability and placement instruments which have achieved such a high profile in the United States in such a relatively short historical time period; that is, since the publication of President Reagan's "A Nation at Risk" in 1982.

If placement tests are to be routinely used with LEP children, then school administrators must be made aware of the limits to predictability in tests designed for one language group and then used for placement purposes in other language groups. Also, educational testing experts (psychometricians) responsible for developing and carrying out testing in cross-cultural situations must be made aware that they have a moral obligation to be concerned about "...the broader concerns of social justice and the appropriateness of test use for groups affected by testing."

(Continued on page 3)

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With the self esteem of so many culturally diverse children at stake, along with the cultural and linguistic integrity of so many non-English speaking American families, such a discussion as this may contribute positively to the body of knowledge indicating that careful thought and planning need to be part of America's educational "evaluation and placement" process with respect to cross-cultural assessment.

Perhaps, through the foregoing analysis, the reader will have been convinced that the use of standardized placement tests for determining school programs for language-minority pupils is at best problematic, if not in many cases, downright inappropriate. People who care about schools working effectively for their pupil clients must work together to find better ways of serving limited English proficient children through appropriate testing.

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*Dr. J. Brian Smith is Superintendent of Schools, Maine Indian Education. The preceding is an excerpt from a longer work which is soon to appear in a collection of essays being published by **The Education Alliance Press.***

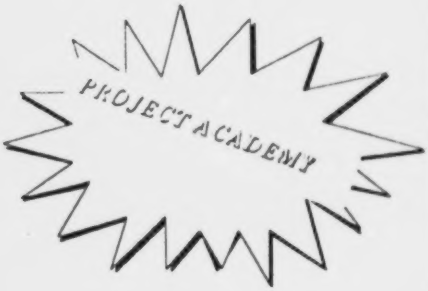
Promising Practices

Superintendents' Leadership Academy Receives New Grant

In May of 1994, Brown University was awarded a short term Title VII grant by the U.S. Department of Education to continue the Superintendents' Leadership Academy for Teachers which was piloted in the 1993-94 school year.

Project Academy is an innovative program designed to train and support change-agent teams which include superintendents and teachers who provide services to linguistic minority students. Using a "Train the Trainers" model, these superintendent/teacher teams will, in turn, provide training and technical assistance to other educators in their districts. Twelve districts, representing the diversity of languages, cultures, geographic configurations and linguistic minority concentrations that characterize New England's multicultural communities, will participate in each cycle of the program.

For more information on Project Academy, contact Bob Parker at The Education Alliance, Brown University (401) 274-9548.



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COUNCIL ACTIVITY UP-DATE

Spring 1994

March 29-30, 1994 -
Superintendents' Leadership Academy for Teachers (First Year Follow-up),
Brown University, Providence, RI.
April 11, 1994 -
RI State Superintendents' Meeting, Warwick, RI
April 12 1994 -
Massachusetts State Superintendents' Meeting, MABE Conference, Leominster, MA
May 13, 1994 -
Superintendents' Leadership Council Advisory Board Meeting, Boston, MA
June 17, 1994-
Dr. David Ramirez addresses members of the RI State Superintendents' Council and guest superintendents from the other New England states
June 29 - July 1, 1994 -
Sixth Annual Superintendents' Summer Institute, Newport, Rhode Island

Noteworthy

Changing Demographics:
What is Impacting on Equity in the Nation's Schools

The United States Census Bureau reported the following in November, 1993:

- 5 million immigrants entered the US between 1985 and 1990
- 7.9% of the American population is now foreign born (up from 6.2% in 1980
- 32 million (or 1 in 7) Americans speak a language other than English in the home
- Asian and Pacific Islander populations showed the greatest increase (by 108%) during the decade between 1980-1990
- Hispanics increased their numbers by 53%
- Native Americans had a 38% increase population growth rate
- African American population grew by about 13%
- Whites experienced the lowest growth rate of just 6%

Looking Ahead

October 19, 1994-
Annual Title VII Directors' Meeting,
Braintree, MA

Fall Meetings of **Superintendents' Academy Teams** to be arranged

New England Superintendents' Leadership Council
A Consortium for Educating Language Minority Students

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New England DAC

Charlene Heintz, Director
New England MRC

npublished Speech for the Rhode Island Principals Leadership Congress
n Educating Language Minorities, May 1993

The Transformation of America's Public Schools

by

Peter J. Negroni, Ed.D.
Superintendent of Schools
Springfield Public Schools

For the first time in this experiment called the American democracy, educators are expected to do something never done before in history: to educate everyone. This new expectation—education for all—is occurring at a most curious time in history when the demographics in the United States are changing more rapidly than ever before. New Americans from many different countries are not of the previous immigrant backgrounds and countries. This new phenomenon has enormous implications for public schools. At the same time, poverty is increasing at an alarming rate in this country.

Combine higher expectations for all, an alarming increase in poverty, an increasingly technologically complex society as well as the present economic downturn, and this country faces the most problematic historical moment for the public schools of America.

How can educators committed to making the public schools work deal with all of this at the same time? Is there hope that we can resolve some of the most complex issues ever to face this country?

There is hope. Difficult times can provide doom and gloom as well as tremendous opportunity to forge a new social order with the schools as the focus of that order. A great deal of change by all in America, however, is required. Particularly those employed in the public schools must change. Key to the transformation of the public schools is the understanding and respect for America's growing diversity by people who work in those schools. This is the enormous challenge before us today.

In the next decade, children will continue to come to school as they are today, increasingly brown and black, certainly poorer and more than likely not ready for school. Parents will continue to send to school the best children they have—they will not keep the good ones at home. These are the children the public schools of America will be responsible to effectively and appropriately educate. Educators clearly understand that the job is a difficult one. Poor children are, indeed more difficult to educate than middle and upper class children. However, when and where a community decides to transform its schools into effective ones that work for all children, it has and will continue to happen.

The proof is in the success of hundreds of schools in America. Clearly, it is **what** the schools do in response to how children come to school and not how they come that makes the difference. It is the school's responsibility to teach the children they get to the best of the school's potential. This is the new paradigm: to teach children to the best of our potential and not to the best of **their** potential. We must embrace the notion that all children can and will learn and that, to a great extent, it is the school and not the children who will make the difference.

There are many schools in this country that are in the middle of the transformational process. Thousands and thousands of schools and educators have recognized the need for a transformation. These schools and educators understand that the results they are getting are not what they want and what this country wants. They understand that to get different results, they must change what they are doing. If they are satisfied with the results, then nothing should change. If they are not satisfied with their results, change must occur in order to get different results.

Of very great importance is that educators do not translate the need to change into personal failure. Too much time has been spent in this country trying to find someone to blame for the problems in public education. We cannot blame the educators, the parents and certainly not the children for our problems. We must begin to concentrate on developing and implementing solutions to the problems that exist.

One of the major reasons for the condition in public schools today is steeped in the history of the independence of schooling. Initially, schools were set up on the hill separate and apart from the community—totally isolated. It was the job of the educator—the expert—to teach the children independent of everyone else. Today, the results of that thinking are evident. Educators are virtually alone and unsupported by the public. Americans have not made the connection between an effective quality of life in a community and the quality of public schooling in a community. The complete and total interdependence of community, schooling and democracy must be recognized by America as part of reform efforts. Our schools cannot be successful until the workers in them and the total community understand that interdependence. Of course, this is further complicated because 75% of the American public do not have children in the public schools. The senior citizens and the childless families all ask what's in it for me. They must be convinced that their ability to effectively participate in this democracy is closely linked to the salvation of the public schools.

They also must be made to understand that we live in a changing society that can no longer survive with only some of its children being successful. All Americans must be convinced that these are the compelling reasons for the transformation of America's public schools into places that effectively educate all youngsters.

Once the need for change in America's public schools is accepted, the method and process of transformation must be addressed. *The complexity of the situation and the interdependence of varied forces require four transformations to occur.* In fact, these transformations must take place simultaneously for America's schools to be able to deliver the type of education necessary for a globally competitive and increasingly diverse democratic 21st century America.

These four transformations—Organizational, Pedagogical, Social and Attitudinal, and Political—are at the very root of required systemic change. Although these transformations are discussed separately—a limitation of language—this is done more as a requirement for clarity than as a distinct separation of each transformation. All four transformations must be applied to the specific issues facing schools. For example, the issue of tracking in America's public schools cannot be discussed without touching all four transformations. Since schools must be viewed holistically, the major issues around the four transformations must be addressed in a systemic change process. Until all of the constituents involved in the educational process take a broader perspective that enables them to see themselves working within a new paradigm, movement in the direction of real reform will cease.

The stress cannot be on saving and fostering present structures in school districts and education related organizations. All must be willing to change. To reinvent schools, the rules, roles and relationships of the past that have led us to where we are today cannot be kept and self-interest cannot continue. The failure to make this paradigm shift has been one of the major failings of our reform efforts in the American public school during the last ten years. Currently, broad rhetoric for change on the part of education related individuals and groups exists, but there is very little self-reflection and analysis of how to change. All of the evidence indicates that little change has taken place in America's classrooms during the last ten years.

If we are to transform our schools, we must naturally transform what is happening in our classrooms. The transformation of our classrooms requires enormous change on the part of America's public schools particularly the employees, the students and the parents. These changes are not the typical tinkering ones, but paradigm shifts that will have impact on every part of

American life. There is no one solution or answer to the problem of transforming present policies, practices, beliefs, and structures. If this were so, identification and replication of a model in every school would suffice. the truth is that no one model answers the needs of every school. We must create the processes which will lead to the self-analysis, reflection and inquiry necessary to create local solutions. In developing a process for change, people, predictably, will use as parts of their solutions existing models and programs to fit their needs. In order to make these changes, a capacity to manage this change must be developed. All of these transformations will require a new capacity to manage the changes for successful implementation.

A word of caution must be issued about the four transformations and the time it will take to accomplish them. Americans are impatient people, who believe that once the problem is identified all that remains is to focus on solutions and the problem will be solved. That is why superintendents are often given six months to show notable improvement. Often, after two years, superintendents are sent packing because they weren't able to "fix" the school system.

The transformational process is long and hard. It requires a new approach that does not use old, tired ideas about change. It requires a focus on a vision of the future as the motivation for change.. The transformational process is not about solving a few problems that have been identified as the impediment to change. It is about creating a new future, a new social order with the schools as the focus. The transformational process requires that the visions to which we aspire are based on a common belief system. Consequently, the organizational and pedagogical transformations cannot occur without the social and attitudinal transformation. This is why schools cannot be independent of the larger society and community. This is why the political transformation has to be connected to the other three transformations.

The work of transforming our schools will take time and nurturing and cannot be done by one person or one group. It is multi-dimensional. With intense managing and support, the transformation of our schools is possible and probable. Self-analysis and self-assessment both on the part of individuals and groups, creation of a broad community vision guided by a common belief system, agreed upon and clearly defined strategies for realizing the vision—all lead to successful change.

1. An Organizational Transformation

The present organizational model used in public schooling needs scrutiny to determine its effectiveness.

Although the majority of American educators would conclude our present structure is not an effective organizational model, they have done little to demand organizational reform. We are basically doing that which we have always done. We continue to organize our schools the same way they were when we went to school. The following questions must be asked: "Do we use what is available in the research about teaching and learning to make adjustments in the way schools are organized? Do we ask why and what of everything we do in our schools?" The answer is a resounding *no*.

Consideration of some of the organizational structures in schools reveals we are not using inquiry and analysis to reform our organizational patterns and structures. If we were, we would not continue doing what we are doing. The most familiar structures include the following:

1. A school calendar of 180 days.
2. A school day from 9 to 3.
3. Age-grade grouping.
4. Subject concentration in secondary schools.
5. Scheduling practices.
6. 45-minute periods, 6 or 7 period day
7. No built-in time in the day for staff interaction, staff development, school improvement.
8. No time in the day for working with parents and for other agencies.
9. Carnegie unit completion rather than performance as the basis for measuring success.
10. Retention as a solution for failure.
11. Lecture as the main delivery strategy.
12. One teacher for twenty to thirty students in an individual classroom.
13. Teachers working totally independent of each other.
14. Top down governance structure—command and control as an organizational strategy.
15. Instruction organized around the principle of remediation.
16. Children in rows and in lines one behind the other.
17. Little choice on the part of teacher, student or parent.
18. Prescriptions for success.
19. Acceleration as the exception.

20. Tracking, on the increase since 1950, as an organizational strategy in spite of the volumes of research that challenge its viability.
21. Schools organized around covering the content or material not around having the children learn the material.
22. The complete separation of teaching services and support services.
23. A variety of social services other than teaching services provided in a fragmented manner: guidance,drug education, mediation, psychological, screening offered without connection to each other or the outside world and other agencies servicing the youngsters.

While these are twenty-three of the most obvious problems with our organizational structure, obviously dozens more exist. In examining each of these structures, a reason for their inception in the American public school is evident. The amazing thing is not that each of these structures has developed, for each has a valid historical reason. Even more amazing is the fact that teachers, students and parents identify clearly and understand the limitation of the present organizational structures; and yet, these structures still survive.

One of the most serious problems that we have in the public schools involves present local, state, and federal rules and regulations that lead to serious fragmentation. On the one hand, we tout our interest and support of new pedagogy; on the other hand, we insist on rules and regulations that make it impossible to implement this new pedagogy. The most glaring example of this in America's public schools is the Chapter I programs. Of course, there are literally dozens of examples where rules and regulations are impediments to implementing cohesive and non-fragmented programs that apply what we know about teaching and learning to instruction; however, there is none more guilty of fragmentation than Chapter I.

The study conducted by a panel commissioned by the Education Department points to all of the issues regarding Chapter I in a clear and concise manner. The recommendations are extraordinarily on target and probably 98% of educators agree with them; however, it will take years for these changes to be incorporated into the Chapter I Program if at all. Something is wrong when everyone agrees something is wrong, but little is done to change existing conditions.

Why is it that teachers, students and parents can clearly identify organizational structures beyond my twenty-three that render public school operations almost obsolete? And yet, why can't they abandon these structures? Educators cannot continue to support ineffective organizational structures. Their detriment to the youth of America demands that the organizational transformation of our schools begin right now.

Concepts and structures that cannot be defended and explained in the organizational structure must be eliminated. At the same time, concepts and structures in the organization that work and are good for children must be reaffirmed.

In the evaluation process, the issue of what is taught must be considered. The American public school has been asked to teach the children more and more each year while the time allotted for schooling has not increased. The schools are besieged by proponents of just about anything people feel is critical for children. From bicycle safety to instruction about AIDS, schools are asked to teach more and more. It is obvious that something must give if schools are to add to the curriculum. Peter Drucker, author of Concept of the Corporation, defines the need to make adjustments in what is done in any organization as organized abandonment. For any organization to survive, he indicates, it must learn to abandon what is no longer useful for the organization. The public schools of America must learn this principle of organized abandonment.

This will not be easy since each of the disciplines wants more time to teach. The great curriculum school wars are coming. The battle lines are being drawn and sides are being chosen. Unfortunately, the needs of the children are not the prime considerations in making decisions about what will be taught. Each group operates out of self-interest. Very often special interest groups spend a great deal of time, energy and money lobbying for their position. Of course, subject-centered educators themselves support their own specific interests. This can range from more mathematics to more counselors. The better organized the group, the more attention it receives from boards of education.

While each of these groups fight for a clear, defined piece of the pie, they forget to think about what is good for children. They forget that the real issue is how to organize schools so that students receive the most benefit from the education provided. If educators stopped fighting for additional time for their subject area or pet project and concentrated on creating an organizational structure that used what we know about teaching and learning to deliver instruction, there would be amazing results in the achievement of youngsters.

We talk about whole language, collaborative and cooperative teaching, student centered instruction, and other new pedagogical approaches, but we refuse to recognize the organizational transformations required to effectively implement these new pedagogical approaches.

In addition, we do not model in our own analysis, reflection, and inquiry the pedagogical processes deemed important for use in the classroom. If these processes are good for students, why aren't they good for educators. It is inconceivable that the institution called school that is in charge of learning does not see itself as the ultimate learner. Schools and school systems see themselves solely as teachers and not as learners. This is quite paradoxical and requires a broad shift in perspective that runs across all four transformations. However, most important is that schools make the transformation from teaching organizations to learning organizations. The noted author and scholar Peter Senge says it best in The Fifth Discipline: "Perhaps your own organization is subject to crippling learning disabilities." Imagine the places in charge of learning— schools—with crippling learning disabilities.

The issue of what we teach in schools as well as viewing our public schools as learning organizations require a great deal of attention and analysis in the American public school. Educators and the public must come to some agreement. While local control over the curriculum must be maintained, this country must come to an understanding about the broad expectations for our schools. Broad curriculum as well as broad assessment standards must be defined for the nation. In addition, the American public school must become the chief learning organization in America.

This problem of organizational transformation is difficult for any institution but much more complex for schools.

- First, in order to change or transform the organization, the fundamental theoretical framework upon which our school organizations are built must change. In other words, the fundamental assumptions of educators must change. The problem here is similar to home improvement. To install a new kitchen, a period of time without a kitchen must be spent. This period of time can be very painful. Similarly, educators cannot put up a sign in front of every public school in America that says, "Closed For Repairs." The schools must continue to operate while making the fundamental systemic changes that will lead to transformed schools.

- Second,we must also consider that schools are very different than other institutions. They are much more than organizations that are instruments to create and achieve goals. Schools are communities that are infused by the common values of the people in them. Since decisions in the school must embody the values and commitment shared by all, the work of transforming the present structure of schools becomes an extremely complex and tricky business.

- Third, this is further complicated by the fact that schools are presently organized around an industrial model rather than an informational model. Schools are traditionally organized to produce young people who are capable of working in isolation and taking direction. They are meant to produce young people who can relate to machines and not to other people. The role of the school today is such that it attempts to extinguish the natural desire of people to gather, be inquisitive and interact. Schools are organized as places where learning is a private, psychological matter between teacher and learner.

The new world requires a total transformation of the organizational structure of schools.

Schools must move to become places where the organizational structure and the pedagogical models stress the importance of producing students who have the following specific skills:

- Higher thinking skills
- Ability to frame new ideas and problem solve
- Creative thinking
- Ability to conceptualize
- Adaptability to change
- Good human relations skills
- Ability to work in a team atmosphere
- Ability to re-learn
- Good oral communication skills
- Ability to negotiate, to come to consensus, to resolve conflicts
- Goal setting skills coupled with motivation and know-how to get things done
- Self-assured and determination to work well
- Many and varied work skills, including office, mechanical and laboratory skills
- Ability to assume responsibility and motivate co-workers, leadership skills.

In order to develop these skills, the organizational norm must be transformed to one that recognizes and supports people who are able to work together and collaborate on problem identification, analysis and solutions. Schools must be organized so that the needs of the students become the focus of the organizational structure. Therefore, how we use time in the structure must be examined, including the present practices of grade levels, scheduling, and time devoted to specific subject areas. The relationship between subject areas, content coverage, length of school day and school year, and subject matter taught, must all be thoroughly examined.

As the school's organizational structure is transformed, educators must also consider that schools are learning communities that have shared goals, values and commitments. Unlike other institutions, schools are places that must focus on reflection and inquiry. Educators have a responsibility to define those differences for government and the public in general. In Moral

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Leadership, Thomas Sergiovanni very clearly identifies the difference between schools and other organizations. Every decision made in the public schools of America must be based on this new sense of schools as communities. We must act in such a way that we reaffirm our values as institutions. The goal is not to make a profit, but to educate youngsters so they can build and foster the American democracy.

In five short years, it is probable that the organizational structure of today's schools will be dramatically different. Achieving the goal of education for all in an increasingly diverse society requires that educators move as quickly as possible in creating this new transformed organizational structure.

2. A pedagogical transformation

Pedagogy and organizational structure must be interwoven. Too often meaningless changes are defined as transformation, but, in fact, are as useful as the reorganization of chairs would have been on the Titanic on that tragic day.

One cannot simply rearrange the chairs in a classroom into a circle and proclaim that this will help instruction. In America's public schools, historically, children have been asked to sit one behind the other and told to be still, be quiet and never to talk to each other. If the change constitutes putting the children in a circle and telling them to be still, be quiet and never talk to each other, little has been done to change the results.

A growing body of evidence indicates that present instructional delivery models cannot survive if we are to meet the needs of a 21st century world. This growing body of knowledge about the way people learn must and will strongly influence future pedagogy. These changes are not the traditional and faddish changes in methods and approaches. They are based on physiological evidence that recognizes the very complex functioning of the human brain. Scientific evidence verifies that different people learn in different ways and that educators, as the engineers of learning, are capable of adapting teaching styles to the learning styles of children. Only one tenth of what is already known is being used and the research continues to explode. This new knowledge will require an adjustment to the pedagogy, which will have a profound and lasting influence on each student as well as each school and how each will look in the future. The work of Howard Gardner and others continues to shed new light on the issue of how we learn and the implications of such on how we teach.

The pedagogical transformation is not about a new method or approach. Rocking the very essence of what has been believed for years, this transformation requires a revolution not an evolution. It will not come about as a result of legislation from the federal or state government or by imposing new or greater standards or new regulations. It will also be stymied if remediation is used as the philosophical and operational process to undo what has been done in the schools. The pedagogical transformation requires the liberation of the American educator. It can only happen in conjunction with the organizational transformation. The children will require more time in school, but certainly not more time doing the same thing. If children are not to be exposed to the same thing, the teachers will have to act differently. This will not come easily and will require enormous effort on the part of teachers. Teachers, who should be appropriately compensated for their time, will have to work longer days and longer years that provide ample time to interact, plan and learn.

For the pedagogical transformation required for success in the next century, teachers and administrators are key. If they are not supported in becoming liberated, it simply cannot and will not happen. In the process, unions will not be an impediment if all understand that the social, attitudinal and political transformations must take place at the same time. The pedagogical transformation must address the issue of what is taught, how it is taught, and how what is taught is measured. It must address the issue of individual needs of a community as well as the needs of this nation. Each community will have to determine what will be accepted as evidence that the expectations for the schools have been met.

It must also be understood that the expectation for results has dramatically changed in the last ten years. This change in expectation must naturally change the pedagogy which is used in our schools. Although these new expectations will be defined in the next transformation, social and attitudinal, the impact of these expectations on pedagogy must be examined. The American public school has taken on a new requirement that has enormous implications for the pedagogy used in the classroom.

For the first time in the history of public education, educators are now expected to be successful with all of the children. Heretofore, the role of the American public school was to decide who would go on to college and who would directly enter the world of work. This process begins as early as the first day the child enters kindergarten. Today, the new requirement of the school is to provide an effective and appropriate education for all children no matter how they come to school. The role of the school has changed to educating children to the best of the school's potential and not to the best of the child's potential. Educators, therefore, must behave as if all children can and will learn. Though this statement may sound very simple, it is not. This is the first time in history that society is demanding that all children be successful in school. This has placed an enormous shock on the public schools of America, because they were not ready for this new demand. The responsibility has been shifted to the school—this is an important if not critical shift in perspective.

The public schools cannot point to the children and say that some children come with so many problems that they cannot be educated. Educators, recognizing the problems and issues confronting children, must figure out how to solve those problems so that everyone can be effectively and appropriately educated. Recognizing that the present pedagogical models will not be acceptable, educators must combine what we are discovering about teaching and learning (pedagogy) with changes in organizational structure to meet the new requirement of teaching all children. As part of the pedagogical transformation, a shift from process to results must be incorporated. The emphasis cannot be on the number and quantity of programs developed, but on the results generated as measured by student achievement. The new pedagogy requires the belief that continuing improvement in student results is always the goal.

Once this goal is accepted, educators must seek and become proficient in the use of alternative teaching strategies. The methods of the past were not successful with all the students. The high drop out rate is not a new phenomenon. What is new is that now the expectation is to reduce if not eliminate the drop out rate since skilled individuals are needed for the new economy and for the continued survival of a democracy. Jon Saphier of Research for Better Teaching provides a systematic analysis of teaching strategies in The Skillful Teacher. The teacher, who organizes the classroom and the presentation of material with distinct and varied methods, will provide students with the essential instruction, reinforcement, and growth in a challenging and supportive environment for the attainment of skills.

Technology promises to play a very important role both as a tool to deliver the effective teaching and learning model as well as a vehicle for increasing the efficiency of information exchange. Technology can provide all employees in the school system with the information required to make effective and informed decisions about students that will lead to all students having access to equity and academic excellence. Classroom teachers need to investigate the role that technology might play in increasing the quality of teaching and learning in individual classrooms. Computers and other technologies are no longer "add-ons;" they are integral tools for preparing students for life in the 21st century. Technology provides immediate access to all kinds of information, accommodates different learning styles, and provides alternative classroom activities, promising to help educators meet national and local education goals. Technology can prove to be the greatest asset in linking the belief that all children can learn with the repertoire of instructional strategies and skills necessary to make the belief system a reality, thus, creating a school system that is effective for all children.

The new requirement that all students achieve has tremendous implications. The responsibility to change and acquire new skills exists both for management and teachers. Teachers must recognize that the skills they brought to teaching are no longer adequate. They must participate in professional development programs to acquire the new skills necessary to be successful with all children. The role of administration and management is to provide training and support for teachers to acquire these new skills. The teachers and administrators of the public schools of this country cannot simply say to the public that they do not have the new skills required to do the work of the new public school of America. They cannot simply indicate that they need training to perform the new task required of them and expect that the system is responsible to train them. They must become active partners in the process, and they must give of their time and energy to acquire the new skills that are required for the pedagogical transformation. This must be a shared responsibility. None of the groups involved can walk away from that responsibility.

The pedagogical transformation is an enormous challenge for the teacher unions in America. By providing viable solutions that are reasonable and allow for this new training for teachers, teacher unions can become the champions of the pedagogical transformation. Teachers and administrators must work closely together to identify the issues and develop and implement solutions. Neither can walk away from their responsibility to participate in the pedagogical transformation that will make the American public school effectively support economic and democratic development.

3. Social and Attitudinal Transformation

The social and attitudinal transformation requires everyone in the community to understand fully the interdependence of school and community. One cannot have an effective quality of life in any community without effective public schools. Each community must form broad alliances with the following communities:

- Business
- Religious
- Parental
- Human Service Providers
- Community Agencies
- Senior Citizens.

These broad alliances are difficult and require major changes in social attitudes. America has not as a nation believed that schools should work as part of a larger and interdependent society. In fact, we have attempted to keep these structures in the community separate and apart. Recently, we have begun to recognize that we must work with the entire community if we are to successfully educate all children.

There still lingers, however, the notion among some educators that keeping these institutions separate and apart is in our best interest. For schools to be successful, however, the services provided for children must be fully integrated. There are several experiments in major cities in the United States that are successfully trying this new approach. Every community in this country—urban, suburban or rural—must move in the direction of integrating services that support each other. This social and attitudinal transformation requires the development of child-centered communities where children and families have real value.

This transformation requires acknowledgement that America has moved from an industrial society to an information society, which is dramatically different from the industrial society and requires major changes in social attitudes.

During the industrial society, America had a very defined set of expectations for the distribution of results. Society was controlled by a few people at the top (totally dominated by men) with most people in the middle working and taking direction from people at the top. Society had to take care of a small group at the bottom. This group would constitute "throw away people," the excess of human capital, who society did not need to be economically successful, but for whom a societal obligation was felt.

In moving into the information society, our expectation of the distribution of results must change. Present conditions in our country are moving us from a moral imperative to educate all to an economic imperative to educate all. American business is facing a most critical challenge in the coming century.

Consider the following:

- American industry will develop 16 million new jobs by the early 21st century; however, it will have only 14 million people to fill these jobs.
- Of these 14 million new entrants into the workplace, a majority will be female

and/or minority. (The minorities or new immigrants will be different from those that came to early America and this presents a different problem.) This is a group that has historically been underprepared. A majority of these new entrants into the workforce will be high risk employees.

How can a country that already will have a shortage of two million workers cope with at risk employees not capable of productively entering the job market? Under these circumstances, American business will not be able to survive.

- In addition, a majority of the 16 million new jobs will require skills far beyond those we expect of entrants into the workforce today. It is estimated that fifty percent of these new jobs will require a college degree; seventy-five percent will require at least two years of college.

While American industry today is spending between 30 and 40 billion dollars on training efforts for their employees, this investment is not enough. The schools must produce a new kind of worker for the 21st century. This worker will need a new literacy and the ability to relearn and be adaptable. It is predicted that today's first graders will change jobs from 4 to 7 times during their lifetime. Up to 51 million may need retraining in the next 15 years; 21 million new entrants plus 30 million current workers.

America will no longer have an excess of human capital. Every citizen is needed as a productive and contributing member of society. The problem is that there is a looming mismatch between the needs of industry (the skills required of new workers) and the type of worker or student who is graduating from schools.

No discussion about the kind of skills students need to be successful in a democracy can be complete without an examination of the purpose of schooling. Is the role of the school to prepare youngsters to be able to enter the workforce after high school and perform the tasks required by the employer or is it to educate in the classical sense of the word so that youngsters once educated are capable of receiving further work-related training once employed? Should one group of students be prepared for work and another group for further education? At this time, this argument rages in our community and our schools.

The question, however, is wrong. The question is generated from an old paradigm, which is based on the belief that the purpose of schooling is sorting and selecting. All of our behavior from the very first day a child enters school indicates that it is our job to sort and select students in such a way that we define and, thus, limit the next step for each of them. All of the practices in public schools clearly indicate the belief that everyone has limits and that the job of the school is to define those limits so as to not cause anguish to the students or to the teachers trying to teach them. After all, if one believes that all students have limits that cannot be transcended, why would one antagonize students who just can't learn beyond those limits and frustrate teachers who are constrained from teaching them beyond their limits.

While this may sound somewhat ridiculous, it is exactly how we have organized our schools for instruction. Most schools in America operate on the premise that children come to school with their innate ability predetermined by birth. Schools then sort youngsters by judgments about their educability. As one looks at the present practices and policies in schools today, one sees the natural outcome of such a belief system. It is only when the belief system about the impact of innate ability on learning is replaced with a new belief system that sees effort and development as the basis for instruction that the operational practices and policies that exist today also can be replaced. One must ask questions that will force an examination of the belief system and, therefore, the practices and policies in support of that belief system.

What is the purpose of French I or algebra? If one believes that the purpose of French I is to keep French I students from taking French II, then all students will never take French II. However, if teachers see their role as assuring that all French I students are ready to take French II, they will work at reducing variation among students to get them all to take French II. This, of course, is a new belief system that says all children can learn if they and their teachers believe they can and if they see their effort as leading to their further development. This naturally will require a new set of practices and policies that support this belief system. Jeff Howard, President of Efficacy, has most thoroughly developed this theme in his work.

This shift in perspective that allows teachers to believe that high performance is possible for all children coupled with an instructional strategy system that provides teachers with the thoughtfulness and repertoire of skills needed to respond to the different needs of youngsters in front of them will generate achievement in youngsters beyond anyone's present imagination.

American society and American schools must change its expectation of the distribution of results. People who were traditionally not expected to succeed must now succeed if our economy is to survive. This requires a complete social and attitudinal transformation on the part of society and more specifically on the part of teachers. Again, the challenge has now become not teaching students to the best of their potential, but teaching students to the best of our potential. This new paradigm indicates that it is what we do in the schools in response to how the children come to school that makes the difference and not how they come to school. This transformation is possibly the most challenging and the most difficult for the American public school to make.

The context in which to make this change makes this transformation difficult. Those in the schools are expected to teach more to more children. Although it is understood that this is the only way our democracy will survive, we also know this is a difficult task. Indeed, no other society to date has accomplished it. Our task is made more difficult because ours is a heterogeneous and pluralistic society unlike any other in the world. Our country is made up of different races and cultures with different values and perspectives on life. With the arrival of new immigrant groups, the United States is experiencing an increasing mosaic rather than the melting process that is often spoken of in the literature. The notable Harold Hodgkinson, demographer, points to the increasing new diversity in this country. Today, America is experiencing diversity that includes dramatically different cultures than ones that originally came to America. This makes effective education for all more difficult than in homogeneous societies. Yet, this difference may be our biggest asset. It very well may be that this country of different cultures and races bound by a common goal called democracy is our greatest strength.

We have in this country struggled with our multicultural and diverse nature and have attempted to view our differences as part of our strength. As of yet, we have not been fully successful in using the diversity of our nation as the potential asset it can be. Educators have tinkered with multicultural and diversity programs as the answer to these problems, but with limited success.

A new approach taking hold in some school systems is called inclusion, which has great promise and is predicated on the fact that the ultimate goal of the public school system is to meet the social and educational needs of all students in the least restrictive environment. This goal calls for a nation-wide retraining of administrators, principals, teachers, paraprofessionals, parents and the development of new class structures that promote a single and inclusive system of education. The mission of our schools is to successfully provide instruction in an integrated environment through the cooperative utilization of all program services.

It is expected that every classroom in America will be involved in activities that will not only promote, but will facilitate inclusive education among all students. Such a vision and environment will make the public schools' motto, "Every child can and will learn," a reality. Inclusive education is a fundamental belief that considers each person an important, accepted member of the school and the community. Inclusive educators work to create a sense of oneness and belonging within the group; they celebrate diversity. The focus is on the positive, including respect and integrity for all people. There is hope among many that inclusion will become a nation-wide foundation that will guide future dreams and decisions in our public schools.

- Inclusion focuses on everyone's abilities and possibilities—not on disabilities and limitations.

- Inclusion acknowledges that everyone has different skills, talents, and gifts to offer—no one has to be good at everything.

- Inclusion means a climate of acceptance is created—no one is rejected or left out.

- Inclusion means that all school staff, students, and parents work together as a team in partnership.

- Inclusion is characterized by gentleness, individualization, openness and humor.

- Inclusion means talking openly about differences in a productive and positive way.

- Inclusion is a daily ongoing process—not just mainstreaming in lunch, art, music and physical education.

- Inclusion is something that changes all the time. It is a series of small adjustments to meet the needs of the people involved.

- Inclusion is characterized by an attitude of problem-solving to discover what is possible.

- Inclusion creates opportunities for people (adults and children) to learn and work together.

- Inclusion is a dynamic rather than static process.

No checklist or definition can capture the spirit or commitment to all children and youth inherent in this concept. This points to the need for America to develop inclusive schools where all community members participate fully and are valued by all. Inclusion is truly a process through which all children can develop the skills, the attitudes and the experiences to be fully enfranchised members of society. Inclusion can and should be the focus of the American public schools as we move towards the 21st century, for it exemplifies all of the transformations required to make our future a viable one for all people in our country.

4. Political Transformation

This area of transformation has several parts and includes political change within the school construct as well as in government and society in general. First, it is important to recognize that we live in a society that has had as its underpinning a strong middle class. This middle class as of late has not been replenishing itself. An analysis of our national birth rate indicates that the middle class has about 1 1/2 children per marriage. This means that the natural replenishment of the middle class is not taking place. By comparison, the birth rate for poor people is exploding.

The political question here surrounds the will of this country to educate those that it has traditionally ignored. Will American society understand the political and economic repercussions and implications of not educating its poor? Will American society support public education in urban centers when the people being educated do not resemble both in class and color the people controlling the economics of those urban centers?

The additional fundamental issue of equity and excellence must also be addressed within the political context. At present, where one is born,to a great extent, will determine the quality of education. There are communities in this country that spend $1,200 a year per child educating a child while others spend as high as $18,000 per child. While the issue is not money alone, how could anyone accept that there is not an inherent political inequality in this funding approach.

A political transformation is required at the local and federal level in the area of funding public education. We cannot continue to run away from this reality. This is the political issue of our times that must be confronted very soon in this country. Interestingly, referenda for education are the American way; however, referenda are not required for bullets and tanks or for war. As a country, we must recognize that education is the national defense of the years ahead.

An additional political transformation that must take place concerns what is taught to children and how what is taught is measured. How we teach children was addressed in the pedagogical and organizational transformation. America must come to some political agreement on what the children are expected to know and how that knowledge will be measured. These two areas demand broad national attention and must be resolved politically.

Equally as important is that politically the governance of American public education must remain at the local level. All attempts to nationalize education are filled with danger. However, in the area of funding for public education, America must develop a federal funding process that supports an equal education for all. This is one of the major areas of political transformation that must take place during the 1990s.

As a nation, we must develop a plan to improve education that includes financial support to deal with all issues that face our children. The appropriate distribution of money must be combined with adequate accountability so that money would not be wasted as is the case in so many federal programs. It must also include attention to all of the other issue that impact our children being able to learn. America must demonstrate that it loves and respects all of its children by providing them with all of the support they need to be successful in school. Will a government operated by people who do not look like its citizens see the importance of providing for the needs of its diverse citizenry? The evidence is that this has not been the case in the past. Will the fact that we can now prove there is an economic imperative to educate all as well as create child and family centered practices and policies make any difference to the people in charge. It has certainly not worked when we approach the need for change from a moral and social justice perspective.

Unequivocally, the single most critical issue in education today is one of equity. Does every child born in America have equal access to an effective and appropriate education? The present system is such that if one is born poor, more than likely an inferior education will be received. The difference between what is spent on poor children and what is spent on middle and upper class children is immense. Jonathan Kozol's Savage Inequalities exposes these differences as America's shame. Moreover, the research clearly supports the implementation of early childhood programs that provide a firm foundation for continued development and academic achievement. Why not begin all schooling at age 4 and continue for 13 years? This change in the school entry age would not increase the number of years of K-12 education, but would provide education during those important formative years, and would allow students to end at age 17. Then, they can continue learning as an apprentice at a job or continue a post secondary education. The changes in society and the workplace indicate that the worker of tomorrow must be capable in many skill areas and must have higher thinking ability. Beginning earlier and providing a continuum of educational opportunities will go a long way in addressing these new challenges.

We are at the crossroads of choosing to pay adequately for the education of all children regardless of where they live, the color of their skin, or the language they speak or of choosing not to pay for equal education and losing our democracy.

The federal government must play a more intensive role in the funding of American public education. The link between our economic survival as a nation and education has been clearly defined. The question is more how America can raise funds for accomplishing this task. A tax program that specifically raises funds for education is needed. Why not propose a U.S. Mail

Education Surcharge? Why not have a 15 cent education surcharge on every piece of mail with a higher scale for pieces of mail that cost over one dollar? This education tax would affect every individual and every business in our nation. An equitable distribution plan for this money would also be easy to devise.

Another part of the political transformation is in the area of race relations. This country has attempted to deal with its pluralistic and diverse nature from a political perspective. Part of our history records a side that enslaved an entire race of people. Our educational system has been dramatically impacted by that part of our history. The American public school still suffers from the practices developed during the slavery period that created different expectations for the races.

In addition to asking whether or not those who pay for education will continue to pay to educate those of a different color, a different language, and a different socioeconomic level, namely poor Black and Hispanic children, we now need to ask whether or not those who govern the educational process will continue to strive for those of a different color, a different language, and a different socioeconomic level, namely poor Black and Hispanic children. So far, too few have fought for equity and excellence for these students.

The performance of Black and Hispanic students over the last quarter century has conditioned everyone, including their parents, that they are not able to perform similarly to white, middle class children. It is going to take a very great transformation to have those who govern education—teachers, principals, administrators, school board members, and especially the general public—to believe, to really believe, that poor Black and Hispanic students can be taught and will be able to learn as well as middle class, white students.

What is it going to take to make that transformation? It will demand a different approach to the preparation of educators. It will require a different environment than what we now call the school. It will require a new vision and a new belief system. It will require a major paradigm shift among Americans. It will require brave and bold leadership.

The transformation must be built one success upon another. For we must see that our old "truth" is a lie. We have ample evidence that indicates poor Black, Hispanic, and female students can compete and achieve as well as anyone else. But until we actually "see it with our own eyes," the transformation will be incomplete.

These transformations can take place in America if we understand and accept the following precepts:

1. More money for doing more of the same thing is not the answer. Money to advance the transformation of the public schools is absolutely necessary.

2. Children do not come to school the same way; however, it is our response to how they come that makes the difference. It is the role of the people in the school to provide students with highly challenging learning opportunities as well as present them with instruction that considers the learning style of the student. Success among students will inevitably follow.

3. The superintendent of schools must be the CAC—Chief Advocate for Children—and has the responsibility to lead the development of the community vision and assure its realization.

4. The present system of funding public education is inequitable and must be changed. Some children cost more to educate than others. Furthermore, where one is born to a great extent determines how much will be spent for education. It is in our best interest to educate them all.

5. The present model of education must be adjusted so that first time quality becomes the norm and not remediation as is presently the case. Thus, schools must change their focus. Education or schooling should begin at 4 years old for all youngsters. This can be done without spending additional money. All we would have to do is rearrange our present curriculum and keep children in school for 13 years—just begin one year earlier.

6. The relationship between the school, the home, and the community must be understood and internalized. Schools need the community and the community needs the schools. They cannot exist independent of each other. It is the responsibility of the home and the community to provide support to students.

7. Our goals must be realigned with our curriculum. What do students really need to know for the 21st century? It is insane and silly to teach well what these students cannot use. Every community must ask itself what do we want our children to know? What will be accepted as evidence that they have learned? How can what they have learned be measured? Multidimensional assessments must be developed to accomplish this task.

8. Schools and classrooms and the way they look and are organized must change dramatically. They must be organized around the interest and needs of the students and not around the interest and needs of adults. Enough is known to do this right now. Although there is an abundance of research on how children learn, not one-tenth of what is known about learning and teaching has been implemented.

9. Technology as the key to the future must be emphasized. Not even one-tenth of the power of technology is currently being used. We must move from the chalkboard to the electronic board. We must integrate learning areas around the technology that exists.

10. The principle of organized abandonment must be learned. Abandon the things that have not worked for a long time, such as age grade grouping, retention, tracking, standardized tests, the Carnegie unit as a process and not a product unit; abandon the present system of scheduling, particularly at the high school level; abandon specific student to teacher ratios and let teachers decide what is necessary, appropriate and effective.

11. Our schools must be transformed from places where people are told what to do, to places where students, parents, teachers and administrators identify the issues and provide the solutions as well as invent the processes that will be used to implement and manage the changes necessary to meet their goals. These constituencies must be able to exercise control over their own destiny. The classroom and school is the unit of change and as such local governance must be promoted, encouraged and maintained. With this control and power will come increased accountability. As the staff is empowered, they will be able to greatly influence learning. This should naturally lead them to commanding higher salaries and status.

12. Choice as a school reform device must be used with great care lest we create new inequities for a segment of our population or as a divider of the haves and have nots.

13. Massive professional development programs programs are needed at the school level. They must be planned and implemented by teachers and administrators.

14. Additional time is needed in the school day where teachers can plan together around the issues that confront them. Schools must become the units of change where

teachers see the interdependence of what they teach and how they work and support each other.

15. Everyone in America must understand the seriousness of our work and the interdependence of the quality of life in our community and the quality of our schools. As a nation we must understand the relationship between quality education and the salvation of our democracy.

Educators will be able to effectuate the transformations described. Through America's educators, a positive vision of a future America can be defined. Vision is not with respect to a vision statement—a statement that one writes and puts away to be shown to visitors when they ask about your vision statement. Vision is something people carry with them at all times. Something that is part of the heart and mind. It is the compelling reason for our work. It is in effect a snapshot of the preferred future. Educators will have a difficult time educating all of the children until every child in America can see himself or herself in a snapshot of their preferred future—a snapshot that shows them as productive and effective citizens in this great democracy.

The educators of America's schools have an awesome task. This awesome task has placed educators in what is possibly the greatest opportunity any one group of people have ever had in the history of America. America is poised for its greatest failure or its greatest success. American educators have been placed in an enviable position. They will decide the fate of the great American experiment called democracy. America cannot and will not survive without an educated populace. What a challenge! What an opportunity!

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THE LANGUAGE OF ASSESSMENT

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New England Superintendents' Summer Institute
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THE LANGUAGE OF ASSESSMENT

Cultural placement of problem in the United States

FOREWORD

It is crucial that the reader consider the paradigms of cultural pluralism and multicultural/bilingual education at the outset of this discussion to acquire an essential foundation and historical context for the national struggle being carried out by advocates of language minority pupils and their multi-cultural identities. I will then be able to explore with you one impact area of that struggle: bias in testing.

Every member of this society must be able to participate fully in the opportunities such an eclectic community affords, or discriminatory turf battles will surely sap the energies and ultimately render untenable life in a society where minority/majority issues continue to reign at the expense of the more relevant communitarian concerns.

Finally, as a backdrop to this talk on the LANGUAGE OF ASSESSMENT and ITEM BIAS:

> ...multicultural education is grounded in the belief that the school should take advantage of who individuals are and what they bring with them to the educational setting. This has the practical implication that the educational environment also makes adjustment to conditions in which it finds students, rather than expect students alone to bear the full burden of adapting to an established and unaccommodating educational environment. The school therefore needs an awareness of what is required for

the success of students. [1]

It may not be clear at first blush, why I digress with a review of cultural pluralism and multicultural/bilingual education at the outset of this talk. I do so, because I want to squarely center this discussion within the context of this long national struggle over cultural diversity through exploring one area of impact: bias in testing.

WHAT IS ITEM BIAS? [1]

Analysis of the definition for bias within the context of this TALK, indicates that bias IS the presence of some characteristic of an item that results in differential performance of two individuals/groups of equal ability but from different subgroups. Bias, then, is differential validity of a given interpretation of a test score for any definable, relevant subgroup of test takers." [2]

Arthur Jensen, in Bias In Mental Testing argues that bias is, "...a form of error: it is error of measurement (unreliability) and error of prediction (invalidity) that are related to the individual's group membership....In the most general terms, bias exists when [the employment of test scores as a measure of success or accountability of schools] discriminates individuals differently than does the criterion measure of performance."[3]

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[1] Gwendolyn Calvert Baker, "Recognition of Our Culturally Pluralistic Society and Multicultural Education in Our Schools," Education and Society (Spring, 1988): 26.

[2] Linn, 205.

WHAT HAVE OTHER RESEARCHERS SAID ABOUT THE VALIDITY OF LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT IN BILINGUAL CHILDREN?

A research summary available from ERIC/OSEP classifies significant factors affecting the validity of language assessments in bilingual children. It deals with such issues as:

...determining which language is dominant and in which language the child should be tested...

...recognizing that bilingual children may use language in a way that is qualitatively different from that of monolingual children...

...recognizing the influence of cultural differences and the local environment...

...overcoming the insufficiencies of existing diagnostic instruments...[4]

I will provide detailed, annotated comments on two of these classifications in the written version of this talk, but will review in summary form all four of the classifications for your consideration.

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[3] Arthur R. Jensen, Bias in Mental Testing, (New York: The Free Press, 1980), 607.

[4] "Assessing the Language Difficulties of Hispanic Bilingual Students" (ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children, Reston, Virginia, August 1989), Abstract 23, ERIC, ED 321427.

1. DETERMINING THE LANGUAGE OF ASSESSMENT

Fully forty of the sixty-three returned responses of Maine school administrators (out of 90 sent out) or 63%, used the following determinant for establishing English competency: "Conversational English proficiency through subjective observation," for determining the competency of bilingual children to take the Maine Educational Assessment instrument in English.

Clearly such an informal, subjective approach could prove disastrous for some children who might seem to be more proficient than they actually are. The relationship between the relative language proficiencies of bilingual children and their scores on tests administered in one or both languages was studied in students referred to special education because of suspected learning disabilities. Bilingual Hispanic students who were considered as limited English proficient, were assessed using intelligence and achievement tests in English and Spanish. The effect of the language of test administration on IQ scores was difficult to assess; however, between 9% and 17% of the group tested qualified for learning-disabled services on the basis of English (but not Spanish) scores. This finding underscores the need to consider native language assessment for all bilingual children.[5]

Children have a facility for informal language acquisition that is quite remarkable. I personally observed English speaking children playing and jabbering in the streets with Iranian children while I was teaching in Iran in the mid 1970's. Such street language facility, however, would ill-prepare such children to go to an Iranian school and to take a norm-referenced test in Farsi.

David Olson discusses this phenomenon:

> ...the degree to which ...linguistic knowledge is conventionalized and formalized need not be very great in oral contexts since the listener has access to a wide range of information with which to recover the speaker's intentions.... To serve the requirements of written language, however, all of the information relevant to the communication of intention must be present in the text....Once this [information has been provided], children or adults have sufficient basis for constructing the meaning explicitly represented by the text. [6]

Reichman and Zyskowski also explored informal versus formal language use: "[w]hen assessing the student's level of oral English, it is very important to differentiate between the use of language for interpersonal communication purposes and for school learning activities. While a student may appear to have a good command of oral English, a thorough assessment may indicate that the student has not mastered enough English to use the language successfully for instructional purposes." [7]

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[5] Cheryl Yelich Wilkinson and Wayne H. Holtzman, Jr., "Relationships among Language Proficiency, Language of Test Administration and Special Education Eligibility for Bilingual Hispanic Students with Suspected Learning Disabilities," Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 5-9 April 1988, TM 012 611, ERIC ED 301 604.

[6] David R. Olson, "From Utterance to Text: The Bias of Language in Speech and Writing," Harvard Educational Review, 47, no. 3 (August 1977): 277.

The Wilkinson/Holtzman, the Olson, and the Reichman/Zyskowski studies clearly show that informal, subjective methods of determining language proficiency with respect to test-taking competency are at best suspect. Yet 69% of Maine's school administrators (forty out of sixty-three) representing 63%, of those responding to a survey indicating how they had determined children's language eligibility for taking the MEA test in English, used just such informal, subjective methods of selection. It is clearly hoped that the results of the current study will indicate that such methods are inappropriate, and that they should be changed by way of Department of Education policy modifications.

Dalton Miller-Jones has shown that accurate assessment of cognitive abilities in individuals not from mainstream Anglo-American backgrounds is encumbered by several factors. Chief among these is the difficulty of inferring underlying cognitive processes from performances on standardized tests.

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[7] Susan Reichman, and Gloria Zyskowski, "Testing Approaches and Uses with Bilingual, Special Needs Students" Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Council for Exceptional Children, 28 March-1 April 1988, ERIC ED 300 944.

Recent developments in contexturalist analyses of cognitive performance, such as cultural practice theory, argue (a) that skills are acquired in specific learning activity contexts and therefore tests of generalized cognitive functioning will inevitably provide a less than accurate portrayal of individuals' capacities; and (b) that appropriate assessment requires an understanding of the constraints that govern access to a person's knowledge and regulate that deployment of concepts and reasoning processes. [8]

Miller-Jones ends his discussion by concluding that the "[c]ultural practice theory has moved us away from a conception of cognitive skills as stable trait-like personal qualities and offered in its place the idea that competencies develop in the context of culturally based activities or practices." [9]

Jim Cummins, of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, raises similar issues germane to the current study. His research indicates:

> ...support [for] the hypothesis that bilingualism promotes an analytic orientation to both linguistic and perceptual structures[;] ...that bilinguals are more semantically oriented than unilinguals and have a greater awareness of certain properties of language is equivocal[;]...that bilinguals had longer response latencies on a word association task than

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[8] Dalton Miller-Jones, "Culture and Testing," American Psychologist, 44, no. 2 (February 1989): 360-366.

[9] Ibid..

> unilinguals....
> A major difficulty in interpreting these studies...is that the measures used to assess metalinguistic skills [10] usually only have face validity. Where correlations between tasks are reported...they tend to be low, thus raising not only the empirical validity question but also the theoretical question of what the dimensions are of the construct of metalinguistic awareness or skill and what developmental stages it goes through. [11]

2. THE INFLUENCE OF CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND THE LOCAL ENVIRONMENT

It seems obvious that cultural differences and the local environment influence how pupils think and look at the world. The content of test items and the processes required for their execution are inexorably affected by the pupils' cultural and linguistic perspective on life. Test developers and those who work out the norming standards must plan for the eventuality that results may be called into question because testing across cultures is a complicated and inexact science: one that must be looked at more for trends and indicators, than for hard and fast proof of cognitive growth and development based on the school's curriculum and teachers.

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[10] Jim Cummins defines metalinguistic development as "....children's awareness of certain properties of language and their ability to analyze linguistic input, i.e., to make the language forms the objects of focal attention and to look at language rather than through it to the intended meaning." Peter Hormel, ed. Childhood Bilingualism: Aspects of Linguistic, Cognitive, and Social Development, (New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum, Assoc., Inc., 1987), 57.

[11] Ibid., 70-71.

The three studies reviewed for this section--two Indian, and one Asian and Pacific American--all indicate that cultural differences and the local environment make generalizing from test results a highly problematic operation where multicultural subgroups are concerned. In fact, standardized assessment ranges from questionable to inappropriate, requiring all manner of supplementary and compensatory strategies to lend credibility to the enterprise.

Robert W. Rhodes has shown that Native American populations score farther from the norm on standardized tests than does any other minority population. He suggests that their perception of reality or world view contributes to this significant difference. His conclusion: "It is becoming more apparent that the use of standardized tests for assessment of minority populations is questionable, both from a content and a process viewpoint. Therefore, it is essential that such tests, if they are used at all, are used in a sensitive and appropriate manner which takes into consideration that they may be inaccurate and may give absolutely misleading information concerning the students to whom they are administered."[12]

The National Commission on Testing and Public Policy and the National Association for Asian and Pacific American (APA) Education held hearings in November 1988, which raised a number of issues that are germane to the current study. Twelve recommendations emerged from the hearings. Some of the accompanying comments are worth noting:

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[12] Robert W. Rhodes, "Standardized Testing of Minority Students: Navajo and Hopi Examples," Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, 78th, St. Louis, MO, 18-23 November 1988, ERIC, ED 299 587.

> o When comparing standardized test scores across school systems...adjustments to test scores should be based not only upon the percentages of black and Hispanic students in a state, but also the percentage of APA's [or upon the percentages of all language minority groups in the state.]
>
> o Nearly all of the testing issues of concern to APA's [language minority pupils] are related to differences in the linguistic and sociocultural backgrounds of APA's and the majority population.
>
> o Generalization of testing policies and testing research findings from one subgroup of APA's [language minority groups] to another with differing configuration of linguistic and sociocultural characteristics should be made with extreme caution.
>
> o It should...be emphasized that, while biased assessments of APA's [language minority groups] may be inadvertent, due to lack of knowledge and understanding of their linguistic and sociocultural characteristics, the effect of inadvertent bias is the same as deliberate bias. APA [language minority groups] access to equal educational and economic opportunities is unfairly limited.[13]

Another Indian study by Florey and Tafoya pointed out factors contributing to the inappropriateness of standardized assessment tools for use with Indian pupils:

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[13] Tony C.M. Lam, "Testing, Opportunity Allocation, and Asian Americans," The Proceedings of a Hearing Co-Sponsored by the National Commission on Testing and Public Policy and the National Association for Asian and Pacific American Education, Honolulu, Hawaii, 11 April 1987, 15-17, ERIC 297 058. A report.

"...neglect of subcultural values, abilities and knowledge in assessment instruments and procedures; use of exclusive training [of examiners] in application of middle class measurement instruments; belief that object measurement is the only way to conduct assessment; inadequate attention to problems of motivation and negative reactions to the examiner; failure to include sufficient numbers of minority students in standardization calculations; and lack of knowledge about culturally valued talents of American Indian students." [14]

Clearly, questions raised by these studies pose uncomfortable questions for those looking to standardized testing as the answer to America's educational accountability problems. America today is too complex in a multicultural sense to make such testing the easy answer. Careful analysis of test items, and pretesting of groups involved, producing local norms, may be required if credibility is to be established in communities that have heretofore been offended by alleged inappropriate testing, and inappropriate use of problematic test results as indicated in these studies.

Marsha H. Lupi and Joseph Yam Ting Woo explored testing bias in the assessment of handicapped and limited English-proficient students of East Asian origin. They concluded that instruments currently used in this testing process may contain cultural biases and linguistic distortions unknown to those evaluators who are unfamiliar with East Asian cultures and languages. They indicate how biases and distortions are present in standardized tests, and offer explanations and suggestions modifying or eliminating them.[15]

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[14] Janice Florey and Nancy Tafoya, "Identifying Gifted and Talented American Indian Students: An Overview," ERIC Digest, EDO-86-0024, (March 1988): 17-14, ERIC ED 296 810.

Dalton Miller-Jones in "Culture and Testing" makes recommendations for assessment based on his research summarized earlier. He indicates that "[i]t is important to consider children's repertoires of cognitive process and the contingencies affecting their use in order to improve success in assessing the competencies of children from diverse backgrounds." For testing he suggests this means:

> 1. For any knowledge domain one must specify the possible processes that may be involved or elicited by tasks and stimuli.... In this, cross-cultural psychology agrees with the approach typically associated with information-processing methods of task analysis....
>
> 2. One should use multiple tasks, with a variety of different materials, with the same individual or population, and not assume generality from a single measure. Furthermore, one has to demonstrate that 'the range of tasks used to sample a hypothetical domain of intellectual activity actually covers the domain in a representative manner' (LCHC, 1982,p.654).
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> ________Laboratory of Comparative Human Cognition. (1982). Culture and intelligence. In R.J. Sternberg (Ed.). Handbook of human intelligence (pp. 642-722). New York: Cambridge University Press.

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[15] Marsha H. Lupi, and Joseph Yam Ting Woo, "Issues in the Assessment of East Asian Handicapped Students," Diagnostique, 14, no. 3 (Spring 1989): 147-158.

3. It is critical that 'the tasks used to sample the domain in question do so for the culture in question' (LCHC,1982,p.654).
_________Ibid., 654.

4. Validation procedures need to better establish the relationship between cognitive operations tested and the acquisition of school concepts and skills such as reading, mathematics, writing, and science.

5. Because representations of knowledge may be configured and accessed differently by individuals varying in cultural background, it is important to develop assessment procedures that permit and direct examiners to probe for the reasoning behind a child's response to an item. It is often not a failure to use a self-generated cognitive strategy that accounts for poor test performance. Rather it is the inconsistent application of an approach or the failure to recognize the cognitive operation the task calls for. [16]

Recommendations that grew out of the Florey and Tafoya study urged assessment specialists to:

o...consider whether the child exhibits outstanding powers in one or more abilities valued by the child's culture,

o...measures at a bright average level in national norms in both ability and achievement,

o...demonstrates creativity, and shows leadership potential,

o ...access [both] verbal and nonverbal responses,

o...provide adequate time for students to answer,

o...develop questioning procedures to elicit multiple responses on items giving credit for such responses,

o...assess a wide range of abilities,

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[16] Ibid., 364-5.

o...and use a matrix rather than one factor for making decisions.[17]

Likewise, if the current study is successful in its outcome, suggestions for identifying, modifying or eliminating biased items will be provided for review and possible replication.

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SUMMARY OF LITERATURE REVIEW

This review of related literature has used the following ERIC/OSEP classification for structuring the analysis of prior research:

I. ...determining which language is dominant and in which language the child should be tested...

II. ...recognizing that bilingual children may use language in a way that is qualitatively different from that of monolingual children...

III. ...recognizing the influence of cultural differences and the local environment...

IV. ...overcoming the insufficiencies of existing diagnostic instruments...

REVIEW OF STUDIES

I. Wilkinson and Holtzman have concluded that the relationship between the relative language proficiencies of bilingual children and their scores on tests administered in one or both languages is significant. They have determined that there is a need to consider native language assessment for all bilingual children, especially if pupils are diagnosed "learning-disabled" for special education services as a result of being tested in English.

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[17] Florey, 14-17.

Olson has explored the differences between a child's ability to function in oral contexts, where a wide range of information exists with which to recover a speaker's intentions, and in written language, where all of the information relevant to the communication of intention must be present in the text.

Likewise, Reichman and Zyskowski, explored informal versus formal language use, and recommended thorough assessment to determine if a child has mastered enough English to use language successfully for instructional purposes.

II. Miller-Jones has discovered that skills are acquired in specific learning activity contexts and therefore tests of generalized cognitive functioning will inevitably provide a less than accurate portrayal of individuals' capacities; and that appropriate assessment requires an understanding of the constraints that govern access to a person's knowledge and regulate that deployment of concepts and reasoning processes. He concludes that competencies develop in the context of culturally based activities or practices, and that Cultural Practice Theory has moved us away from a conception of cognitive skills as stable trait-like personal qualities.

Cummins thinks that bilingualism promotes an analytical orientation to both linguistic and perceptual structures, and that bilinguals have longer response latencies on a word association task than unilinguals. He judged "equivocal" whether or not bilinguals are more semantically oriented, or that they have a greater awareness of certain properties of language than do unilinguals.

III. Rhodes has shown that Native American pupils score farther from the norm on standardized tests than do any other minority pupils, and he believes it is their perception of reality or world view that is at the root of this phenomenon.

The National Commission on Testing and Public Policy and the National Association for Asian and Pacific American Education held hearings which concluded that:

o...adjustments for all language minority groups need to be made when comparing standardized test scores across school systems...

o...nearly all of the testing issues of concern to language minority pupils are related to differences in the linguistic and sociocultural backgrounds of the minority pupils and those of the majority population...

o...generalization of testing policies and research between subgroups with differing configuration of linguistic and sociocultural characteristics should be made with extreme caution...

o...the effect of inadvertent bias in testing is the same as deliberate bias: access to equal educational and economic opportunities is unfairly limited...

Florey and Tafoya pointed out factors contributing to the inappropriateness of standardized assessment tools for use with Indian pupils.

Lucas, Henze, and Donato show that the diversity among students cannot simply be ignored. Approaches to schooling that value linguistic and cultural diversity and that promote cultural pluralism were welcomed and explored whenever possible.

IV. Lupi and Woo concluded that instruments currently used in testing may contain cultural biases and linguistic distortions unknown to evaluators unfamiliar with the cultures and languages of the pupils being tested.

Miller-Jones indicates that it is important to consider children's repertoires of cognitive process and the contingencies affecting their use in order to improve success in assessing the competencies of children from diverse backgrounds.

Florey and Tafoya urged assessors to consider a child's success in abilities valued by her/his own culture; to consider both achievement and ability; to consider leadership skills; to consider both verbal and nonverbal skills; to provide culturally sufficient time for testing situations; to provide opportunities for multiple responses with credit for them; to use a wide range of abilities in assessment; and to use matrix rather than one-factor assessment where decisions are required.

DOMINANT LANGUAGE AS IT AFFECTS THE LANGUAGE OF ASSESSMENT

Now I want close in on the topic of the day, the Language of Assessment, by looking at a few studies emphasizing the importance of determining the pupil's dominant language and by extension, the language in which the pupil ought to be tested. Clearly if the pupil's dominant language context is French, for example, it is inappropriate to administer a test in the English language unless the pupil is demonstrably bilingual/English fluent. For unless the pupil meets all of the criteria for bilingual/English fluency, s/he will certainly be placed at a disadvantage if tested in other than in the dominant language.

The problem inherent in the discussion of language dominance is of course inadequate or supperficial determination of the fluency status. Uninformed educators responsible for certifying the language status of pupils for test-taking purposes are certainly having a "disabling" impact on certain pupils inappropriately or improperly designated bilingual/ English fluent. Cummins provides an historical perspective on the use of the English language for educational assessment of English deficient (minority language) pupils:

> Historically, assessment has played the role of legitimizing the disabling of minority students. In some cases assessment itself may play the primary role, but more often it has been used to locate the "problem" within the minority student, thereby screening from critical scrutiny the subtractive nature of the school program, the exclusionary orientation of teachers towards minority communities, and transmission models of teaching that inhibit students from active participation in learning....From the present perspective, however, it must be emphasized that [biased] assessment is carried out by well-intentioned individuals who, rather than challenging a socioeducational system that tends to disable minority students, have accepted a role definition and an educational structure that makes [biased] assessment virtually inevitable.[18]

Dolson indicates that... "[n]ationally, it has been estimated that at least 3.4 million school-children are limited in the English language skills needed to succeed in school programs designed for native speakers of English."[19] That is to say, educators responsible for testing decisions affecting cross-cultural pupils must be cognizant of the possiblity that some of their clients may be adversly affected by testing unless precautions are taken to insure that language dominance has been taken into consideration and accommodated for.

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[18] Jim Cummins, "Empowering Minority Students: A Framework for Intervention," Harvard Educational Review, 56, no. 1 (February 1986): 28.

[19] Dolson, 16.

The State of Connecticut Department of Education offers the following administrative guideline on the assessment of questionable bilinguals, that is, children whose second (English) language skills are unknown in terms of their competency for being tested in English:

> In order to determine the language that will be used for testing and instruction, the dominant language of the student must first be established through comprehensive language study. A description of dominance, rather than a report of test scores, is more effective for further evaluation as well as for language planning. [20]

It is clear that children exploit their facility for informal language acquisition. The use of street language facility, however, does not support the assumption that such children should be able to take an objective-referenced test in English. It must be clearly established for example, that the French-speaking children in Caribou, Maine, are truly bilingual/English fluent speakers based on such clearly defensible guidelines on assessment as those provided educators in Connecticut:

> Step 1. Identify home language usage through home language survey or interview.
>
> Step 2. Review language dominance by checking results of assessment procedure. Remember that dominance varies significantly

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[20] Tom B. Gillung, ed. Providing Special Education Services to Limited-English-Proficient Handicapped Students, Administrative Guidelines, (Connecticut: Department of Education, 1990), 21.

relative to areas and situations.

Step 3. Aggregate and interpret all available data. Consider if:

> a. a monolingual (single language) evaluation procedure will be as effective as a bilingual (dual language) evaluation in capturing the student's strengths and weaknesses, or if
>
> b. a bilingual (usage of two languages) evaluation would be more effective than a monolingual English evaluation in capturing the student's strengths and weaknesses.[21]

Olson supports this reasoning of the Connecticut State Department:

> ...the degree to which ...linguistic knowledge is conventionalized and formalized need not be very great in oral contexts since the listener has access to a wide range of information with which to recover the speaker's intentions....To serve the requirements of written language, however, all of the information relevant to the communication of intention must be present in the text....Once this [information has been provided], children or adults have sufficient basis for constructing the meaning explicitly represented by the text.[22]

Reichman and Zyskowski also explored informal versus formal language use:

> [w]hen assessing the student's level of oral English, it is very important to differentiate between the use of language for interpersonal communication purposes and for school learning activities. While a student may appear to have a

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[21] Ibid., 65.

[22] David R. Olson, "From Utterance to Text: The Bias of Language in Speech and Writing," Harvard Educational Review, 47, no. 3 (August 1977): 277.

> good command of oral English, a thorough assessment may indicate that the student has not mastered enough English to use the language successfully for instructional purposes.[23]

McBay notes that, "[t]oo often, [Alaskan and American Indian] Natives who have problems with English proficiency are miscategorized as special education students, producing in them a sense of inferiority."[24]

These studies show that informal, subjective methods of determining language proficiency with respect to test-taking competencies are at best suspect. They demonstrate that accurate determination of the dominant language is pivotal in righting some of the wrongs generated by differential validity in standardized testing. This point will be further developed later in this chapter with specific reference as to how a pupil's English fluency is determined before taking the MEA. It should be understood that a pupil's social language skills as used in peer discourse are very different from the higher order language skills required for reasoning on a testing instrument. Since this study is looking for items indicating differential validity between pupils of identifiably equal abilities, equal language ability in terms of English language fluency should be a fundamental prerequisite for test taking.

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[23] Susan Reichman, and Gloria Zyskowski, "Testing Approaches and Uses with Bilingual, Special Needs Students" Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Council for Exceptional Children, 28 March-1 April 1988, ERIC ED 300 944.

[24] Shirley M. McBay, ed. Education That Works: Quality Education For Minorities Project (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Massachusetts Institute Of Technology, January, 1990), 25.

CONCLUSIONS

In short, the literature suggests that assessment of fluent/bilingual English pupils can be problematical in that test items can generate differential validity in the scores of minority language pupils. In fact, Jim Cummins believes that assessment has been used to place language minority pupils at a disadvantage, thereby focusing attention away from "subtractive" school programs, and teachers who would prefer to exclude such pupils from the mainstream. Such use of testing, locates the "problem" within the language minority student, and promotes a model of teaching that inhibits pupils from accessing an active role in the learning process.

Educational reform initiatives of the past decade have pounced on assessment as the noble solution to school accountability. But predicating reform strategies on such a simplistic answer as assessment, without taking into consideration the complex and rapidly changing demographics impacting this society, has forced the issues considered considered here today to the surface in States like Maine.

Ferdman has concluded that cultural diversity is inextricably tied up in the relationship between literacy and the individual, and that if our society is to focus on extending literacy, it must do so within light of our cultural pluralism.

Not to recognize and accommodate for our cultural diversity, while at the same time demanding educational accountability verified through various assessment strategies, will almost surely force testing bias (differential validity) to raise its ugly head.

Jensen has clearly shown that error of measurement (unreliability) and error of prediction (invalidity) are directly related to an individual's group membership.

Many Americans, however, still hold to the single-minded assumption that pupil assessment can identify most educational problems, thus leading the way to identifying strategies for the solution of such distinguished problems. Such pre-conceptions however, eclipse the fundamental issues explored in this talk: that cross-cultural language issues must be carefully planned for if pupils whose first language is other than English are not to be disenfranchised from social and/or educational opportunities on the basis of some assessment instruments.

The Maine Legislature considered in its 1993, session, legislation which would grant quality-incentive monetary bonuses to school departments which show significant increases in their school-wide scores-over-time on Maine's MEA. Again, unless accommodation is made to account for the genuine impact of language and cultural differences in a number of Maine school departments, children attending such schools will surely be discriminated against if such legislation passes without respect to their special multicultural concerns. Their schools will certainly not be competing on an equitable basis for these proposed quality-incentive bonuses, not because of identifiably equal pupil abilities, but because of test-driven item bias which is the product of test developers unaware, or worse, unconcerned about the unique challenges presented by Maine's multicultural pupil population.

It is my hope that you may have profited here today from some of the information I have gleaned as I explored the challenge of assessing bilingual. At least you have probably discovered that there is more to the topic than you may first have guessed. Thank you for your consideration.

1. More on bias: Of course the criterion itself may be inadequate or biased. Jensen argues that "[a] predictor is biased if it either overestimates or underestimates an individual's criterion performance depending on his group membership. A predictor is biased if it correlates more with group membership than with the criterion it is intended to predict, for under this condition [the use of test scores in qualitatively comparing the effectiveness of schools] reward[s] or penalize[s] on the basis of...group membership rather than just on the basis of those individual traits that are in fact relevant to the criterion."

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4. *Conference Agendas and Selected Handouts*

NEW ENGLAND MULTIFUNCTIONAL RESOURCE CENTER
FOR
LANGUAGE AND CULTURE IN EDUCATION

Dr. Adeline Becker, Director

A Consortium of:

Brown University
University of Hartford
University of Maine
University of Massachusetts

Hands-on Strategies for Bilingual/LEP Program Directors:
Effecting Educational Reform Through Collaboration

REGIONAL DIRECTORS MEETING

Sturbridge, MA
October 26. 1993

9:00	**Greetings and Introductions** Multifunctional Resource Center Staff Desegregation Assistance Center Staff
9:30	**Building a Common Vision** Claire Sylvan, Teacher, International High School, New York-United Federation of Teachers Building Representative Ruthellyn Weiner, Assistant Principal, International High School, New York
10:30	**We Can't Do it Alone** Maria Wilson-Portuondo Project MAINSTREAM, Brown University
Break	
11:00	**Understanding Key Players** Group Activity
12:30	LUNCH
1:45	Workshop Sessions (descriptions attached) **A) Collaborating in an Atmosphere of Diversity** Loel Greene and Merlene Samuels New England Desegregation Assistance Center **B) Collaboration Strategies From A Mainstream/ESL Multidistrict Consortium** Donald L. Bouchard, Project Synergy, Kennebunk, Maine **C) Assessing LEP Elementary Students in Integrated, Team Taught Settings** Carolyn Vincent, Evaluation Assistance Center East
3:00	**State Planning Meetings**
4:00	**Departure**

NEW ENGLAND MRC, *144 Wayland Avenue, Providence, RI 02906-4384 (401) 274-9548*
FAX # (401) 421-7650

NEW ENGLAND MULTIFUNCTIONAL RESOURCE CENTER
FOR
LANGUAGE AND CULTURE IN EDUCATION

Dr. Adeline Becker, Director

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University of Southern Maine

UNDERSTANDING KEY PLAYERS

AN INTERACTIVE AND COLLABORATIVE ACTIVITY

TITLE VII WORKSHOP
STURBRIDGE, MA
OCTOBER 26, 1993

NEW ENGLAND MRC, *144 Wayland Avenue, Providence, RI 02906-4384 (401) 274-9548*
FAX # (401) 421-7650

ANALYZING WHAT KEY PLAYERS BRING TO COLLABORATIVE DECISION MAKING

WHAT TO DO

1. Look inside your workshop folder. Find the yellow piece of paper with 3 numbers on it. Match your piece of paper with the card in the center of one of the circular tables in the meeting room. Join the people at that table. This group will be your collaborative team for the activity.

2. Introduce yourself to your team.

3. The team should elect a **Team Coordinator** (keeps the Team on task), a **Spokesperson** (reports the group's findings to the full group), a **Scribe** (takes notes during the activity which will be used by the spokesperson during the reporting stage of the activity), and an **Information-Gathering** (leaves the Team to collect information or clarify instructions from the activity facilitators).

4. Activity: [N.B.As you complete this activity remember to keep in mind the needs of LEP students and your needs as a director/coordinator of LEP services in your district.]

    4.1 Find the **Understanding Key Players** package on your table.
    4.2 Read the boxed information ("The Context") on the page after the directions.
    4.3 Quickly review the **Matrix,** the **Goals of the Activity**, and the **Personal Plan of Action.** (If you have time, review "Connecting This Activity.")
    4.4 On the **Matrix**, find your three "Key Players." They match the three numbers printed on the card in the center of your table.
    4.5 Facilitated by the group Team Coordinator, Team members brainstorm and discuss the 4 categories which are printed across the top of the matrix relative to the Key Players assigned to your Team. That is, the team explores the (1) possible needs and the (2) resistant behavior Key Players might exhibit when they have to collaborate. The Team identifies the (3) compromises and negotiations, and the (4) resources the Key Players can use to make collaborative efforts successful.
    4.6 The group should decide what will be recorded for each of the 4 categories, and use the Matrix as a guide for keeping on task. The Team will need paper.
    4.7 Once the Team activity is completed, each Team member should complete a copy of the **Personal Plan of Action**. Please put your name on your Plan. (We would like to collect the Plans to document today's activity. We will copy them and return them to you at the end of the day. We will blank out your name from our copies.)
    4.8 Depending on time available, each Team will be asked to report about their Key Players.

Members of the DAC and MRC staff will keep you informed about time constraints.

THE CONTEXT

For us, there has to be two goals for collaboration between the key players in a school and school district:

- Collaboration will lead to empowerment of all the key players in a school.

  That is, collaboration must be designed to empower a school staff by encouraging discussion and dialogue about important school programmatic and instructional decisions . Also, collaboration must support the actual implementation of those important school programmatic and instructional decisions by the staff decision makers.

  However...

- Collaboration will include the needs of LEP students and the professionals who provide services to LEP students.

  That is, collaborative decision making needs to ensure that it implements the legal mandates for LEP students which were originally designed to ensure access to equal opportunity for LEP students. Again, collaboration can not forget that LEP program directors and administrators *must* support appropriate services and school environments for linguistic minority enrollments.

This change in decision-making "power" is a difficult experience for all the people in a school and school district. People are often frightened because...

- In most school systems, programmatic and instructional decisions were often made in the past by one person or small group without consulting with the practitioners who were to implement the decisions in their classrooms so staff are not used to having the decision-making responsibility which is a set of learned skills.

- When collaborative or team decision making is first implemented, all the key players fear they will be losing what "control" they acquired under the way of making decisions. They bring to the process all kinds of attitudes about their roles and responsibilities. They bring all kinds of "survival" skills acquired during the previous management system of central office decision making.

In the following activity, we ask you to attempt to get inside the feelings, motivations and attitudes of some of the key players who would be effected-affected by the implementation of a collaborative effort to change a school so that the educational needs of all the students enrolled in that school will be met. This activity is a modified role-playing experience - you have an opportunity to react to a situation as some of the Key Players would react when they begin to participate in collaborative activity.

MATRIX: LEP PROGRAM DIRECTOR'S VIEW OF KEY PLAYERS

KEY PLAYERS	WHAT DO THEY WANT OR NEED? WHAT ARE THEIR PERCEIVED GOALS OR PURPOSE?	RESISTANT BEHAVIOR/FEARS/ BARRIERS TO COLLABORATION	WHAT EACH KEY PLAYER NEEDS TO DO TO MAKE COLLABORATION WORK	REQUIRED RESOURCES W/N SCHOOL, DISTRICT, COMMUNITY & REGION
1. Students 2. Directors 3. Principal 4. *Teachers*: 4.1 BIL/ESL 4.2 Mainstream 5. *Specialists*: 5.1 Chapter 1 5.2 SPED 5.3 Guidance 6. Parents 7. Administr's (e.g., Central Office, Supervisors, etc.) 8. Union 9. School Committee 10. Community				

MY PERSONAL PLAN OF ACTION

The strategies I'll use (or actions I'll take) to develop win-win solutions for all key players to foster in-school collaboration which will benefit the learning needs of LEP students. My choices will recognize the positive effect of compromise, negotiation and mediation when collaborating.
The time line I'll use for trying out and implementing my strategies.

GOALS OF THIS ACTIVITY are

1. to provide a simulation of a problem solving situation relevant to the collaboration needs of directors/coordinators of bilingual/ESL programs where in they can

    1.1 identify the key players in collaborative efforts
    1.2 validate the needs, attitudes and wants of key players
    1.3 recognize the possible barriers to successful collaboration
    1.4 explore the possible solutions to these barriers
    1.5 classify the resources necessary for successful collaboration

2. to provide an opportunity for collegial interaction, networking and collaboration for exploring the issues and protocols of collaboration in public schools

3. to provide an opportunity for individuals to make connections with their personal professional needs as promulgators and agents of collaboration in their schools

CONNECTING THIS ACTIVITY WITH THE PROBLEM SOLVING STEPS

PROBLEM SOLVING STEP	OBSERVATION
1. Define & clarify the problem.	Changing demographics and the employment needs of the 21st Century are having an enormous impact on our schools. Educators cannot meet all the needs of an inclusionary student population. We need to collaborate in planning and implementing services for all our students. Many districts have established on-site decision-making and problem-solving teams to meet the needs of their students.
2. Analyze the problem.	However, collaboration is frightening to educators who have not been allowed to make important decisions about what is to be taught, how it is to be taught, and how a school will be organized. Further, schools need to still meet the requirements of services for LEP students. Too often mainstream educators do not even think to involve bilingual and ESL educators in their decision making/problem-solving teams. Or, bilingual and ESL educators sense that they are not welcome in these on-site teams. Finally, administrators need to evaluate LEP services and support strategies which make the services work.
3. Explore alternatives.	Teachers and administrators who feel disenfranchised or marginalized by collaborative and team decision making will benefit from exploring the motives of the key players who have so much at stake when a school changes from a top-down to a bottom-up management approach. As individuals grow in understanding the attitudes and needs of other key players, they should join a team and explore strategies which will encourage collaborative decision-making.

4.	Select a strategy.	Individual directors (as well as real-life team members) need to make connections to their own needs, and develop a plan of action for trying out some of the recommended strategies in their own schools and districts.
5.	Clarify the strategy.	Individual directors should keep in touch with other members of their *ad hoc* team to discuss problems and solutions generated in today's activities.
6.	Implement strategy, provide support.	Individual directors need to actually implement one or two of the strategies identified today. They will probably need to ask selected principals or other administrators to support their efforts.
7.	Evaluate outcomes.	Individual directors (or, better, on-site problem-solving teams) will need to develop an evaluation process to determine if the strategies are working (i.e., the strategies *are* supporting a form of collaboration which is benefitting LEP students). If they are not, then on-site teams should collaborate to identify new strategies and continue the problem-solving process. Evaluation keeps the problem-solving process alive and dynamic.

Recommended Reasonably Priced Books:

Bonstingl, J.J. (1992) *Schools of Quality*. Alexandria, Virginia: Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Hicks, R.F. and D. Bones (1990) *Self-Managing Teams*. Los Altos, California: Crisp Publications, Inc.

Pokras, S. (1989) *Systematic Problem-Solving and Decision-Making*. Los Altos, California: Crisp Publications, Inc.

NEW ENGLAND MULTIFUNCTIONAL RESOURCE CENTER FOR LANGUAGE AND CULTURE IN EDUCATION

HANDS-ON STRATEGIES FOR BILINGUAL/LEP PROGRAM DIRECTORS: EFFECTING EDUCATIONAL REFORM THROUGH COLLABORATION

REGIONAL DIRECTORS MEETING
STURBRIDGE, MA
OCTOBER 26, 1993

BUILDING A COMMON VISION
DIRECTORS MATERIALS

PREPARED BY
CLAIRE E. SYLVAN
RUTHELLYN WEINER
INTERNATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL
NEW YORK CITY

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The following materials are designed to assist you in planning for staff training sessions.

The Mission Statement:

This should be a sentence or two which states the overall purpose of your educational program. The one which you create should be considered a draft, to be discussed and refined with your staff.

Statement of Educational Philosophy:

This should be a listing of principles which outline how students and faculty learn best.

They form the basis for how you and your staff are going to make the multitude of daily decisions which will define your program and its ability to accomplish your mission.

This listing should be detailed enough to define your program's point of view on learning.

Your vision of school/program should emerge from these principles.

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The Mission Statement:

Statement of Educational Philosophy:

THE IDEAL CLASSROOM

Please make as drawing, sketch, or floor plan of the ideal classroom. Include yourself and students in the picture.

How does this drawing reflect your educational philosophy?

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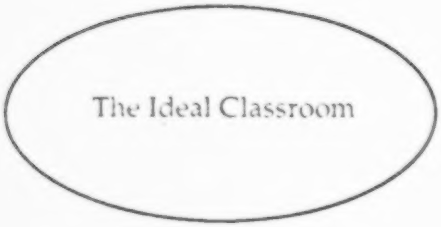
THE IDEAL CLASSROOM

Please make a semantic map for an ideal classroom. Around the center concept, place your thoughts, characteristics, properties, descriptions of what it would look like, what students are doing, what teachers are doing, etc.



How does this collection of thoughts reflect your educational philosophy?

EXCERPTS FROM PROJECT PROPEL HANDBOOK

Introduction

This Project PROPEL Handbook is a collection of descriptions, educational philosophy, and curriculum materials generated at The International High School to assist adopting sites in developing their own programs. As a team, we recognize that packaged programs transplanted to other settings face limited success. We believe that the focus should be on the *process* of developing successful educational programs. The nature of the programs that result should be based on sound student centered pedagogy and should be unique to each setting.

Just as the teacher is a guide to students' learning, this handbook should be viewed as a guide to educators attempting to reorganize schools. While these materials were developed to address the needs of limited English proficient students, the approach to reorganizing schools may find wider application.

As educational reform becomes simultaneously a classroom, school wide, community, and national issue, we need some organizing principles to avoid yet one more program in a headlong lurch toward educational excellence or one more sledgehammer for educational change.

One principle to guide our efforts at school reform is to focus on students, their needs, and their learning. The basic relationship between teacher and students in support of learning must be accounted for in any school wide, community or national agenda. We must act on the belief that students can learn and teachers can teach.

We believe that staff development is key to the reform of schools. The conditions which promote staff development are the same as those for students. Teachers and administrators must be willing to risk change. School governance models must support teachers' growth and professionalization. We recognize that this developmental process takes time, support, and is most effective when it is self-generated and self-correcting.

Project PROPEL exists as a resource to teachers, schools, staff developers, and policy makers in school restructuring efforts.

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The International High School at LaGuardia Community College

The International High School at LaGuardia Community College, an alternative high school serving the needs of limited English proficient students, was founded in 1985, as a joint venture of the Board of Education and the Board of Higher Education of the City of New York. It was funded as a Special Alternative Instructional Program (SAIP) under ESEA Title VII in 1988. Our mission is to enable each of our students to develop the linguistic, cognitive and cultural skills necessary for success in high school, college and beyond. The program is alternative in its admissions policy, population served, school governance, teaching methodology, setting, and opportunities for both students and staff.

The International High School admits only students of limited English proficiency, who have been in the United States fewer than four years at the time of application. Once admitted, the students remain with us for their entire high school careers. They receive a complete high school curriculum taught with an ESL content based approach. At the same time, students have the opportunity to maintain and further their native language development through native language arts courses, peer mediated instructional activities, and instructional materials and textbooks in their native languages.

All classes are heterogeneous, that is, students are not grouped according to language level, achievement level or grade level. They register for classes the same way college students do, signing up for required and elective courses that will help them fulfill graduation requirements. A major feature of the curriculum is the experiential education program which provides a sequence of courses emphasizing the social sciences, combined with three career internships in the world of work, where students have the opportunity to extend their knowledge of English and U.S. culture in real life settings.

The entire staff shares major administrative responsibilities through the committee structure. The Staff Development Committee plans and oversees the entire inservice staff development program. The Faculty Personnel Committee interviews and selects new staff members, and administers the peer evaluation program. The Curriculum Committee coordinates the ongoing curriculum development of the school.

Committee membership is crucial to our teaching approach. It enables teachers to experience the collaborative process that they expect of their students. They can then more credibly serve as role models.

The college campus setting provides us with many facilities not often found in public high schools, such as a broad range of media including a TV studio, numerous computer labs, and a complete microfilm library of *The New York Times*. Teachers from the college regularly teach courses at the high school, while teachers from the high school also teach at the college. Some classes are team-taught by one high school and one college teacher, and are open to both high school and college students. High school students can take college courses with matriculated college students for both high school and college credit, thus increasing their access to curricular offerings.

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Mission Statement

The mission of The International High School is to enable each of our students to develop the linguistic, cognitive and cultural skills necessary for success in high school, college, and beyond. We are committed to the following educational principles.

Educational Philosophy

1. Limited English proficient students require the ability to understand, speak, read and write English with near-native fluency to realize their full potential within an English-speaking society.

2. In an increasingly interdependent world, fluency in a language other than English must not be viewed as a handicap, but rather as a resource for the student, the school and the society.

3. Language skills are most effectively learned in context and embedded in a content area.

4. The most successful educational programs are those which emphasize high expectations coupled with effective support systems.

5. Attempts to homogeneously group students in an effort to make instruction more manageable, preclude the way in which individuals learn best, that is, from each other.

6. The carefully planned use of multiple learning contexts in addition to the classroom (e.g., learning centers, career internship sites, field trips), facilitates language acquisition and content area mastery.

7. Career education is a significant motivational factor for adolescent learners.

8. The most effective instruction takes place when teachers actively participate in the school decision making process, including instructional program design, curriculum development and materials selection.

Collaborative Learning

Collaborative learning thrives on diversity and assumes that everyone in a group has something to offer. It recognizes that students have an incredible variety of cognitive and linguistic skills, varied educational and cultural backgrounds, and varied levels of English proficiency. Collaborative learning capitalizes on this wealth of experience. Heterogeneity is not a problem to be solved. When it is embraced, it is a positive force in the classroom. It makes learning a social activity, and knowledge, the outcome of interactions among individuals. The products of collaboration - at school, in research, in business - are invariably better than products created in isolation. Two heads really are better than one.

Most schooling operates in an authoritarian structure where classes are teacher dominated. Teachers are transmitters and students are the receivers. The expectation is that all students, at successive levels, have had similar academic preparation and prior experiences; that they will all respond to the same treatment; and that some years hence, they will all have learned and retained the same subject matter. Our experience shows that this is not true. Education increases differences as students focus on and develop areas of strength.

In collaborative classrooms the roles of teachers and students are redefined. Teaching is subordinated to learning. The emphasis is on student activity, while the teacher acts as a coach, helping students to arrive at answers, interceding when necessary, backing off when not directly needed. The role of teacher becomes more complex in this model, since he/she is interacting with students as individuals and as members of a group rather than dealing with a whole class at the same time.

Many of us experienced collaborative learning during our elementary schooling. There was a variety of things to do and a variety of places to do those things. The classroom was a laboratory. Sharing was the norm. Whole class lectures were kept to a minimum. The level of excitement and energy in those classes contrasts with what occurs in many high school classrooms today.

When students are actively engaged in problem solving, the chances of meeting their needs are greater than when they are passive learners under the transmission model of pedagogy. They have the opportunity to study a problem in depth, and to work in an environment in which variety is expected. Part of their obligation is to include others as they continue to meet high expectations. Those who previously might have been left behind are part of a group of peers who have a stake in their success. Those in the middle are no longer able to hide because they are called upon to respond in a variety of situations and challenges, and have a responsibility to the group.

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Using collaborative learning with heterogeneous groups is not a bag of tricks. It is no panacea. It is, however, a way to organize a learning environment that fosters respect for difference, encourages investigation in depth, and emphasizes the social aspects of learning.

Interdisciplinary Study

The compartmentalization of learning and the departmentalization of our schools has resulted in a fragmentation of learning and a focus on increasingly isolated bits of knowledge. Basic questions have gone unasked: Who am I? What is the nature of the world around me? What are my responsibilities to others?

Interdisciplinary study begins to reverse this trend, unifying, connecting, and building small learning communities. These communities create a natural support group for each student academically, socially, and emotionally. Planning for the course leads teachers to plan collaboratively for instruction based on students' interests and needs. These factors, taken together, create student success.

By studying across disciplines, the context in which learning occurs is expanded, that is, the student no longer thinks of learning as taking place in an isolated classroom, but can relate experiences to each other and can view all environments as places of learning. Different disciplines are viewed as interacting, reinforcing and broadening one's perspective.

Interdisciplinary study can range from simply linking courses to be taken together at the same time, to thematically based study in which a theme is explored through a variety of disciplines, to blending several subjects into an integrated whole.

Organizing learning around conceptual themes exercises our abilities to discover patterns, make connections, organize experiences, and explore various points of view. The organizing principle for schools and learning has moved from covering material and learning facts to one based on higher order thinking skills.

School in this model is not just a place to train students to fit into society, but rather a place to help all of us understand and change our lives, both students and staff. The small communities created address the personal and emotional needs of students. High school students are often overwhelmed, uncertain, and isolated. By working with others, students experience that they can solve problems, can be responsible for their learning, and experience self-confidence.

The teamwork required in planning interdisciplinary study develops collaborative skills in teachers and models the process of collaboration for students. It presents the opportunity to rethink the essentials of our disciplines.

The success of thematically based interdisciplinary programs has prompted the faculty of The International High School to reorganize the curriculum of the entire school around interdisciplinary thematic study.

Examples

Beginnings

One interdisciplinary team at The International High School combines English as a second language, career education, biology, and mathematics, organized around the theme *Beginnings*. The thread that ties all the components together is an emphasis on origins. Students examine the formation of the universe, and the genesis of life, the beginnings of their lives, the beginnings of their lives in a new country, and the beginning of career exploration.

Visibility/Invisibility

Another interdisciplinary set of classes focuses on *Visibility/Invisibility*, a set of connected courses in which students receive literature, math, physics and physical education credit. Through literature students learn to read critically, to write both academically and creatively, and to express themselves in small and large group settings. Visibility is broadly interpreted as the perception of pattern and meaning in our language, lives, and literature. Invisibility is explored in literal, metaphorical, and cultural terms.

Students begin by studying the eye, the limitations of the seeing process, illusions, and the nature of light. The science and math component leads students to an understanding of the basic and invisible structure of our universe, i.e. the gravitational force, the electromagnetic force and the nuclear force. Through laboratory activities students use mathematical methods to model, quantify and understand these forces. The history of scientific inquiry and discovery that led to our understandings is emphasized.

Project Adventure, the physical education component of *Visibility/Invisibility*, includes advanced individual and group problem solving in physically challenging situations. The cycle of activities leading up to and through the high ropes course inculcates in students a real, physical sense of responsibility for each other's safety. This in, turn, develops the trust and confidence that lead to successful completion of tasks and, ultimately, from physical risk taking to cognitive risk taking - a quantum leap. Skills learned in this adventure-based, experiential curriculum allow students to operate more efficiently and effectively as individuals within a group and collectively as a group, in literature, physics, and math. A sub theme is to explore how ideals and values become visible in our lives.

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New England Multifunctional Resource Center
for Language and Culture in Education

144 Wayland Ave.
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A Consortium of
Brown University
University of Hartford
University of Southern Maine
University of Massachusetts

The MRC wishes to thank the following principals who participated in planning this event:

Linda Casey	Cranston
Carol Fortin	Woonsocket
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Leslie Improta	Warwick
Joyce Hindle Koutsogaine	Cumberland
Gerald Landes	Providence
Joseph Maguire	Providence
Carol Masson	Central Falls
Robert O'Brien	North Providence
John Rezendes	East Providence
Patricia Richards	Cumberland
Judy Richardson	East Providence
Diane Santos	East Providence

Second Annual Rhode Island Principals' Leadership Congress on Educating Language Minority Students

December 1, 1993

Holiday Inn at the Crossings

Sponsored by:

New England Multifunctional Resource Center for Language and Culture in Education at Brown University

New England Desegregation Assistance Center at Brown University

New England Superintendents' Leadership Council: A Consortium for Educating Language Minority Students

Rhode Island Department of Education

11:30 Foyer	**Registration**
12:00 Patriots Room E-H	**Buffet Lunch**
1:00 Patriots Room E-H	**General Session** Greetings and Introductions Keynote Address: *CREATING WHOLE SCHOOL CONTEXTS TO SUPPORT ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE* Jean Handscombe, North York Board of Education, Toronto, Ontario, Canada former President of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages)
2:15-3:45	**Concurrent Workshop Sessions**
Wickford Room	A. *INTEGRATING LEP STUDENTS INTO THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY* Eric Nadelstern, Principal, The International High School at LaGuardia Community College, New York The appearance of increasing numbers of limited English proficient (LEP) students in our schools provides a unique opportunity to rethink our classroom practices for all students. Participants will examine their educational beliefs in light of instructional approaches developed for use with LEP students at The International High School at LaGuardia Community College. These strategies include integrated language development and content area study, interdisciplinary thematic learning, and alternative assessment of students and faculty.
Kingston Room	B. *MAINSTREAMING THAT WORKS* Miriam Remar, Principal, Carolyn Dayn, teacher Howard C. Reiche Community School , Portland, Maine This presentation will focus on school wide programs, practices and procedures that create the framework for successful mainstreaming of multilingual students. Specific strategies that work in a multi-cultural, elementary school (K-5) setting will be reviewed, along with actual experiences and insights from the student, teacher, administrator points of view, at this nationally recognized "School of Excellence."
Patriots Room	C. *ESL/MAINSTREAM COLLABORATION* Donald Bouchard Title VII Director, Linda Lucas, teacher, Project Synergy, Kennebunk, ME The presenters will describe the collaborative process through which ESL teachers engage in dialogue and combine resources with other school personnel to provide support services for K-12 minority language learners in a Title VII funded consortium. The presenters will also describe the process by which ESL and mainstream teachers collaborate in teaching and developing curriculum. Follow-up discussion will encourage participants to apply these strategies to their own situations.
Rhode Island Room E	D. *TEACHING TOLERANCE: CREATING A PEACEABLE SCHOOL* William Waxman, Equity Coordinator, Revere MA. School Department, Principal Garfield School, Revere 1963-89 The presenter will share the models he developed to adapt to the dramatically changing demographics of his K-8 school. Staff and children are trained in diversity and cultural issues, communication skills, cooperation and conflict resolution. The team-taught integrated homeroom is the basic unit for practice and reinforcement of these skills. Parental involvement is also a key feature of the nationally recognized Garfield model, which is currently being implemented at other sites.
4:00-5:00	**General Session**
Patriots Room E-H	*PANEL AND GROUP DISCUSSION ON PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION*
5:00-5:30	**General Session**
Patriots Room E-H	*WHAT NEXT?* Follow-up planning facilitated by members of the Principals' Task Force

PRINCIPALS' LEADERSHIP CONGRESS
FOR
EDUCATING
LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS

December 1, 1993

GROUP DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why invest time in building "a common vision'?

How can a principal lead a school staff in the development of a common vision, given the variety of staff backgrounds, beliefs, and goals?

2. Can a school be described as multicultural simply because of the cultural diversity of its student population?

How can a principal support the growth of a multicultural climate ?

3. What are the benefits for all students when ESL and mainstream teachers work collaboratively ?

How can the principal promote such collaborations?

4. Must we accept the inevitability of intercultural conflicts in school settings of racial and cultural diversity ?

How can a principal proactively address the potential for intercultural conflicts ?

	AWARENESS	INFORMATION (FACTS/MODELS)	SKILLS AND STRATEGIES	IMPLEMENTATION PLAN
A COMMON VISION				
A MULTICULTURAL SCHOOL CLIMATE				
ESL/MAINSTREAM COLLABORATIONS				
A PEACEABLE SCHOOL				

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Cooperative Approaches to Responsive Education
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Resource Center for Language and Culture in
Education
Brown University

Bridgeport, Connecticut Public Schools
East Providence, Rhode Island Public Schools
Fall River, Massachusetts Public Schools
Springfield, Massachusetts Public Schools

For Information about :

The New England Superintendents'
Leadership Council
and
Project CARES

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Follow-up
to
The First Annual New England Superintendents' Leadership Academy for Teachers at Brown University

School Teams as Change Agents

March 29 - March 30, 1994
Crystal Room, Alumnae Hall
Brown University

Tuesday, March 29

4:30 - 5:00	**Registration and Refreshments**
5:00 - 5:30	**Greetings and Introductions**
5:30 - 6:00	**Bob Parker, New England MRC & Project CARES, Brown University** *Review of Academy Goals & Last Years Activities* **Goals of the Academy Follow-Up**
6:00 - 7:00	**North Providence Team (Project PRAISE):** *Strategies for Successful Team Decision Making*
7:00 - 8:00	**Working Dinner** *Teams Review Last Year's Activities and Plan for the Current Year*
8:00 - 8:30	**Team Reports and Closure**

Wednesday, March 30

8:30 - 9:00	**Continental Breakfast**
9:00 - 9:30	**Bob Parker, New England MRC & Project CARES, Brown University** *Overview of the Characteristics of Successful Change Agents*
9:30 - 10:15	**Maria Pacheco, New England MRC & Project PRAISE, Brown University** Characteristics of Adult Learners
10:15 - 10:30	**Break**
10:30 - 12:30	**Fran Collignon, New England MRC & Project MAINSTREAM, Brown University** *Coaching as On-site Staff Development* *Interactive/Case Study Activity*
12:30 - 1:30	**Lunch**
1:30 - 2:30	**Team Activity:** *Facilitation as On-Site Staff Development and Technical Assistance Support*
2:30 - 3:30	**Planning and Closure:** (1) *Suggestions for Next Academy Cycle* (2) *Planning Participation by Team Members in the Next Academy Cycle* (3) *Support & Training for Teams* (4) *Review of Day's Goals*

CONNECTING READING SELECTIONS IN FOLDER WITH TOPICS/THEMES COVERED IN ACADEMY FOLLOW-UP

TOPIC/THEME	READING SELECTION
1. Change-Agent Skills:	Parker, Change Agents (Outline)
1.1 Adult Learning	Zemke, 30 Things We Know for Sure About Adult Learners
1.2 Behavior Modeling	Zemke, Behavior Modeling
1.3 Conferencing with Peers	Robbins, Conferencing Strategies
1.4 Feedback Strategies	Minor, Coaching and Counseling
1.5 Listening Skills	Teaching Listening & Questioning Skills Zemke, Learning to Listen to Trainees
1.6 Rationale for Change Agents in Schools	Fullan, Why Teachers Must Become Change Agents
1.7 Training and Presentations	Tips for Training Activities
2. Continuous Learning and Improvement: The New Education Model	Bonstingl, Schools of Quality
3. Improve Team Problem Solving	Tools for Reaching Group Decisions Dealing with Disruptive People Reasons People Resist Change

From

Schools of Quality

An Introduction to Total Quality Management in Education

John Jay Bonstingl

Association for Supervision
and Curriculum Development

1992

4.14.95

APPENDIX 4

The Quality Paradigm Shift in Education: from Teaching and Testing To Continuous Learning and Improvement

OLD PARADIGM OF TEACHING AND TESTING	NEW PARADIGM OF CONTINUOUS LEARNING AND IMPROVEMENT
Success if artificially limited to a few "winners." All others are made to consider themselves and their work as mediocre or inferior.	Unlimited, continuous improvement and successes are the objectives of schooling.
Competition-based.	Cooperation-based.
Lessons are linear, consecutive segments of one-way communication.	Learning is like a spiral with energy directed toward continuous improvement.
Product-oriented; focused solely on results, without acknowledgment of their short term nature. Grades and rankings important in themselves.	Process-oriented. Goals are important, but the process of getting to getting to the goal is at are least as significant.
Life, including schooling, is only worthwhile if you reach goals. The process has little or no intrinsic merit.	Life is a journey, and has intrinsic merit if lived with a zest for life, love, and learning. A "yearning and learning" is most important of all.
The system and its processes matter, as long as the ends are achieved. long as the ends are achieved.	The integrity and health of the system must be maintained, or the system will be suboptimized, and will eventually fail.
Work is a task, not intended to bring joy to the worker.	Work should be challenging, meaningful, and invigorating.
School as a place where teaching is done to (at) students. Students are passive, teachers are active.	School as a place where teachers and students learn how to get better and better at the work they do together.

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OLD PARADIGM	NEW PARADIGM
Teachers are isolated from each other by time and space.	Teachers work together on school time to build success with each other and with a manageable number of students in a cohort group.
Administration is viewed as the teachers' natural adversary (perhaps even enemy).	Administrators are viewed as teammates and helpers in removing the obstacles to student and teacher successes.
Teachers are viewed as the students' natural adversaries (perhaps even enemy).	Teachers are viewed as teammates and helpers in removing obstacles to continuous success.
Tayloresque factory model: Rule by compliance, providing control, command. Authoritarian, hierarchical. Fear used as tool of power.	New model: Rule by helping, vision and leadership, making it possible for teachers and students to take pride in their work together, and to have joy in the processes (including the products) of continuous improvement.
Centralized control over curriculum, teaching methods, length of class periods, school day, school year, and so on.	Site-based management of curriculum, methods, time considerations, and so on.
Single-discipline instruction.	Multi- and cross-discipline learning.
External validation of truth and the one right answer for every question asked by teacher.	External and internal truths discovered through student's and teacher's questioning together.
Testing as primary means of assessing results of the learning process.	Testing, when appropriate, to help modify (improve) the teaching/learning process. Others: process portfolios, exhibitions, and so on.
Instruction is set up to generate (right) answers.	Instruction is set up to generate better and better questions, followed by student inquiry into

OLD PARADIGM	NEW PARADIGM
	some of the areas of those questions. Student performances demonstrate improved understanding of the nature of the questions and some of the ways they might be solved.
Teachers give information; students memorize it, then forget most of it.	Students learn from teachers, other students, community and other sources, and incorporate those learnings into their lives, applying their insights as appropriate to real-life challenges.
Parents as outsiders, often made to feel unwelcome, even if unintentionally.	Parents as partners, suppliers, suppliers and customers. They are an integral part of the student's progress from the very beginning through the end of the schooling process.
Businesses sometimes welcomed to "adopt" a school; kept at arm's length.	Businesses invited to become partners (secondary suppliers and customers) in the students' continuous progress, not for direct commercial gain.
People of the community members encouraged to take part in the life of the school, or in the education of the community's young people. Not encouraged to have pride in the community schools.	People of the community brought into the school and made welcome, encouraged to contribute time and talents to the betterment of their school and their community's children.
Ultimate goal: Students as products of the school.	Ultimate goal: Students as their own products, continuously improving, getting better and better, and helping others to do the same.

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N.E. MRC-1

PRINCIPLES FOR ADULT LEARNERS

When you provide training, technical assistance and on-the-job support to adults, remember these principles.

1. Adults are seeking solutions to on-the-job problems. That is, they require practical information and skill to do their job better.

   (You need to connect the content of your service to their work needs. Thus, you will have to spend some time listening to them as they talk about their on-the-job problems. Also, if the practical skill cannot be truly understood without some theoretical knowledge, you will need to "smuggle" that theory into the presentation of practical skills.)

2. The "client" is equal to not subservient to the trainer, facilitator, or coach.

   (You will need to spend time with the client building trust and collegiality, even if aspects of their work style or personality disconcert you.)

3. The adult participant is there voluntarily.

4. The "client" is often an expert in her/his field or subject.

   (You need to acknowledge this. Again, it is worth the time to assist them in making connections between what you are providing and what they already and know and can do.)

5. Adults prefer to be active learners.

   (You need to assist them in applying and field-testing the new skills or knowledge they are learning.)

6. Adults expect and enjoy learning from each other, and need the opportunity to do so.

   (You will need to provide opportunities so they can learn from each other in spite of the fact that educational pre-service training and administrators of public schools imply that all teachers should bring all the skills they need into the classroom. Another implication is that only weak teachers need constant in-service and support.)

7. Real life always intervenes in an adult's work life and on-the-job training and support.

   (You need to be flexible, direct and clear so that they will want to keep your professional relationship going.)

SOME REMINDERS FOR CHANGE AGENTS

Nancy Clair Ed.D
NEMRC
University of Massachusetts, Boston

- * CHOOSE YOUR BATTLES WISELY (we can't do everything)
- * UNDERSTAND THE ISSUE/IDEA (for example, if we want to change our school's assessment system, learn about assessment).
- * UNDERSTAND THE KEY PLAYERS (who will the change impact? how? what are the differing perspectives surrounding the issue/idea?)
- * LISTEN (there are multiple perspectives for any given issue/idea).
- * BUILD COLLABORATION (we can't do it alone).

DIAGNOSTIC WINDOW

	Things that are working	**Things that are not working**
Amenable to change		
Not amenable to change		

From Steven Ruma, "A Diagnostic Model for Organizational Change," in Social Change, 1974, 4(4), pp. 3-5. Reproduced by special permission of NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

SOME QUESTIONS TO ASK WHEN SELF-EVALUATING THE TEAM'S CHANGE-AGENT ACTIVITIES

1. What communicative strategies worked the best for keeping the team members abreast of activities and concerns?

2. Did we keep accurate records of..

   team meetings
   change agent activities in schools & classrooms
   communications with administrators, teachers, students or parents?

3. Did we evaluate each task we attempted such as workshops, presentations, technical assistance, coaching, peer tutoring?

4. Did we deal successfully with resistance to the changes we promulgated?

   4.1 If yes, what were the strategies and attitudes which facilitated this success.

   4.2 If no, what were the strategies and attitudes which facilitated this success.

5. What barriers remain in the way for successful solving of the "problem" identified on Worksheet #1? (At last year's Academy)

6. What needs to be changed in the action plan we developed? Should we create a new plan?

7. What support systems worked and did not work? How can we build a wide/wider base of support for our activities?

WORKSHEET #3: PLAN OF ACTION

ISSUE/CONCERN/PROBLEM ______________________________

DISTRICT ____

TEAM MEMBERS ____

____

1.	SET GOALS/OUTCOMES.	[How will the target problem/concern be different than now?]
2.	IDENTIFY THE SEQUENCE OR PROCESS OF YOUR ACTION PLAN.	

N.E. MRC-1

3. ESTABLISH A TIME LINE.
4. DESCRIBE THE INTERNAL & EXTERNAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES YOU WILL USE.

N.E. MRC-1

5. WHAT SUPPORT WILL YOU NEED? WHO WILL SUPPLY IT?

6. ROLES & RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEAM MEMBERS

6.1 Who will deal with reluctance of administrators & teachers?
6.2 Who will call planning meetings?
6.3 Who will document progress & change?
6.4 Who will collect data & resources?

FRIDAY, JULY 1

8:00 **STATE BREAKFAST MEETINGS:**
Connecticut:
Superintendent James Connelly /
Myrella Lara, SEA
Maine:
Barney Bérubé, SEA
Massachusetts:
Superintendent Marylou McGrath /
Superintendent Peter Negroni /
Gilman Hébert, SEA
New Hampshire:
Superintendent Henry LaBranche /
Robert Fournier, SEA
Rhode Island:
Superintendent David Heimbecker /
Virginia daMota, SEA
Vermont:
Superintendent Paul Danyow /
Jerry Robinson, SEA

9:30 ***Student View of School Reform***

(Panel comprised of language minority students from each New England State)

11:00 **Congressman Jack Reed**
"Reauthorization and the Language Minority Student"

11:30 - 12:00 **Wrap-Up**
Phil Zarlengo,
Rhode Island Department of Education

Co-Sponsored by

The Andrew W. Mellon Foundation

The Education Alliance at Brown University:

The New England Multifunctional Resource Center

The New England Desegregation Assistance Center

Project CARES

The Six New England State Departments of Education

The New England Superintendents' Leadership Council

For Information about :

The New England Superintendents' Leadership Council

Contact:

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144 Wayland Avenue
Providence, RI 02906

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The Sixth Annual New England Superintendents' Summer Institute

June 29 - July 1, 1994
Newport Harbor Hotel
Newport, RI

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 29

EQUITY, REFORM & THE LANGUAGE MINORITY AGENDA

2:00 - 5:00 **REGISTRATION**

3:00 **ORIENTATION: Out-of-Region Participants**
Superintendent Peter Negroni,
Springfield, MA Public Schools

Adeline Becker, Executive Director
The Education Alliance,
Brown University

4:00 **ORIENTATION: New Members of the Council**
Superintendent Henry LaBranche,
Salem, NH Public Schools

Bob Parker,
Coordinator, Project CARES,
Brown University

5:00 **RECEPTION**

6:00 **PROGRAM OVERVIEW**
Superintendent James Connelly,
Bridgeport, CT Public Schools

6:15 **GREETINGS:**
Brenda Dann-Messier,
Secretary's Regional Representative
U.S. Department of Education

6:30 **KEYNOTE:**
Dudley Flood,
Executive Director,
North Carolina Association of
School Administrators
"Multiculturalism & Equity"

7:30 **DINNER**

THURSDAY, JUNE 30

8:00 **COFFEE**

8:15 **GREETINGS & INTRODUCTIONS:**
Adeline Becker

8:45 **KEYNOTE:**
Eugene Garcia, Director, OBEMLA
U.S. Department of Education,
Washington, DC
"Equity, School Reform and the Language Minority Agenda"

9:45 **COMMISSIONERS' RESPONSE**

A Panel of New England Commissioners of Education react to the Keynote Address

10:45 **BREAK**

11:00 **FOCUS GROUPS**

- ***How Professional Development can address language minority student needs***
  Facilitators: Commissioner Robert Antonucci (MA)
  Superintendent MaryLou McGrath (Cambridge, MA)
  Superintendent Henry LaBranche (Salem, NH)
- ***Outcomes Education for language minority students***
  Facilitators: Commissioner Leo Martin (ME)
  Deputy Commissioner Benjamin Dixon (CT)
  Superintendent James Connelly (Bridgeport, CT)
  Barney Bérubé (SEA, ME)
- ***Issues of Inclusion for language minority students***
  Facilitators: Commissioner Peter McWalters (RI)
  Superintendent David Heimbecker (N. Providence,RI)
  Virginia daMota (SEA, RI)

12:30 **LUNCH**

1:30 **FOCUS GROUP REPORTS and FOLLOW-UP**

2:30 **WORKSHOP SESSIONS**

1-Walter Secada, Associate Dean of the School of Education, University of Wisconsin
Latest Research on School Restructuring & Equity

2- Don Bouchard, Project Synergy, ME
Superintendent Mark Joyce (Kennebunk, ME)
Superintendent Roger Spugnardi (Biddeford, ME)
Collaboration among Low Incidence Populations

3- Superintendent David Heimbecker (North Providence, RI)
Characteristics of Successful Change Agent Teams

SUPERINTENDENTS' LEADERSHIP COUNCIL

ADVISORY BOARD:

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Bridgeport, CT

Paul Danyow, Co-Chair
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Adeline Becker, Convener
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John DeGoes
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Salem, NH

Mary Lou McGrath
Cambridge, MA

Peter Negroni
Springfield, MA

J. Brian Smith
Maine Indian Education
Calais, ME

New England Superintendents' Leadership Council

A Consortium for Educating Language Minority Students

New England MRC, Brown University
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The New England Superintendents' Leadership Council

Introduction:

The New England Superintendents' Leadership Council: A Consortium for Educating Language Minority Students was created in 1989 following the first New England Superintendents' Summer Institute in Newport, RI. Sponsored by the New England Multifunctional Resource Center for Language and Culture in Education at Brown University (MRC), the Institute brought together superintendents from the six New England states to discuss: *Ways for Establishing Effective Schools for At-Risk LEP Students.* Superintendents were invited based on recommendations made by the regional State Education Agencies (SEAs). All participants represented local school districts with Limited English Proficient (LEP) enrollments. With an increased awareness of the issues concerning LEP students, the superintendents decided that a permanent association to address these issues was needed.

This determination to create a permanent organization was the impetus for the establishment of the Superintendents' Leadership Council, the first of its kind in the United States. The Council is governed by a rotating advisory group comprised of a minimum of one superintendent from each state and the Director of the New England MRC at Brown University. The six regional SEA representatives participate in an ex officio capacity.

In 1991, after three successful years as a permanent organization with a growing membership of more than 100 superintendents, the Leadership Council, through Brown University, received a grant from the US Office of Education for Project C.A.R.E.S: Cooperative Approaches to Responsive Education for Superintendents. **The Council continues to meet its regional goals while serving as a national model for bringing to the forefront the issues of educating language minority students who may be placed at risk.**

Council Objectives:

Leadership and advocacy, at local, regional, and national levels, in the presentation of issues concerning the education of language minority students.

Recruitment of new superintendents for participation in sponsored programs.

Organization of a superintendents' forum for the exchange of ideas about language minority schooling.

Training of superintendents in topics directly related to the instruction of LEP students.

Dissemination of information about successful practices for meeting the needs of LEP students.

Council Activities:

Superintendents' Summer Institute held annually in Newport, RI. The Institute is designed to inform both the new Council members and previous participants on ways to promote successful practices and increased advocacy in the education of LEP students.

Council Advisory Board Meetings held three times each year to plan future activities for individual state meetings and for the Summer Institute.

State Meetings of Superintendents and SEAs held at least twice each year. These meetings are discussion-workshops which complement the Summer Institute and serve the individual needs of each state.

Newsletter published quarterly. Each issue focuses on a topic of interest identified by the Superintendents' Advisory Board. "Promising Practices" and "Informational Updates" are highlighted in each publication.

Mini-clearinghouse for the dissemination of information on language minority issues, housed at the New England MRC at Brown University.

Presentations at meetings and conferences by Council members

READINGS

1. Restructuring and Reform

   - The Top 10 Fantasies of School Reformers
   - Getting Reform Right: What Works and What Doesn't
   - ESL Policies and School Restructuring: Risks and Opportunities for Language Minority Students
   - The Connection Between Urban School Reform and Urban Student Populations: How Are Urban School Reform Efforts Addressing the Needs of Language Minority Students?

2. Dr. Garcia's Keynote

   - Goals 2000 is Not More of the Same
   - Effective Schooling for Language Minority Students: The Teacher
   - The Education of Linguistically & Culturally Diverse Students

3. Current Research

   Sociocultural processes in academic, cognitive, and language development (positive effect of late-exit programs)

4. Immigration • Immigration Laws Are Education Laws Too

5. Demographics

   - Who Are Our Current and Future Students?

6. Program Designs (for Language Minority Students)

   - Districtwide Approach Enables Border System to Defy Low Expectations for L.E.P. Students
   - Teaching Language-Minority Students

7. Equity of Service for Linguistic Minorities

   - School System Found to Be Biased Against Minority Students

8. Focus Groups:

8.1	Staff Development	•Meeting the Needs of LEP Students Through New Teacher Training
8.2	Outcomes Based Education	•"Outcomes-Based" Education: An Overview
8.3	Inclusion/Integration	•Principles for "Inclusionary" Programs for Linguistic Minority Students

Visions of Equal Educational Opportunity

The Top 10 Fantasies Of School Reformers

Mr. Haberman lays down a simple rule for would-be reformers: before advocating for their pet reforms, they should be required to provide a brief description of what schools that satisfy them would look like.

BY MARTIN HABERMAN

BECAUSE MOST Americans regard the schools as successful, most school reformers are terribly frustrated. The public wants to improve a system that it believes in, while most of the experts

Illustration by Jem Sullivan

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want to take the whole thing apart and start over. The people are interested in efficiency: they want more learning and greater cost control. The movers and shakers in education are concerned with some ideal state that can be attained if only the schools are reconceptualized and reconstructed. The people are protective of a system that they regard as successful; the change agents are frightened of what will happen without immediate and significant changes in a failed system.

This difference between most of the people and most of the experts is the primary reason that the school reform movement of the last decade has failed so far and will continue to fail in the future. There is also a second and less obvious reason: it's the "vision thing." School reformers rarely connect the problems they identify with the solutions they offer. Is there a connection between the dropout rate in Texas and the passage of "no pass/no play" legislation? What is the connection between mandating year-round schools and raising the achievement of bilingual children in Colorado? How will requiring a high school diploma for a driver's license help the young adults of West Virginia to compete in a global economy? Reformers seldom if ever offer any logic or data to connect the problems they begin with to the solutions with which they conclude.

The endless reports that constitute the literature on school reform generally read like C-minus term papers in which things that are wrong with society are left unconnected to things that are wrong with the schools – and both are left unconnected to proposals for reform. School reform reports follow as orthodox a formula as do westerns or soap operas. The introductory section presents shocking data: increases in teen pregnancy, child abuse, or the number of children in poverty. This is followed by information on how schools fail: dropout rates, school violence, and achievement levels below those of Portugal. Following these are sections dealing with what has been learned from model or lighthouse schools: how a particular school has been "turned around" by an effective school leader, by regular testing, or by parent involvement. There is typically a final section in which commission members, researchers, or experts advocate for their favorite school reform.

What is generally missing from these reports and from other reform literature are clear connections between the societal problems with which they begin and the school changes they end up proposing. Either the reformers have not thought through their purposes, or they have recognized that they might lose support if their purposes are stated openly, or they have fallen in love with their favorite reforms and no longer give a hang about purposes, or they regard the connection between their proposals for school change and the problems of America as obvious – something "any fool can plainly see."

In reading the opening sections, introductions, background, and problem statements of these reports, it is clear to me that the reform literature assumes that schools can best be improved by "equalizing educational opportunity." But "equalizing educational opportunity" is never clearly defined. We must infer or guess at the proponent's vision of this equalized state. After much mucking about in the literature of reform, it seems to me that at least 10 different kinds of assumptions are routinely made about what constitutes "equal educational opportunity."

In almost all cases the vision is tacit, although a few reports do contain direct statements of what "equal educational opportunity" would look like. To say that the visions are tacit is not to say that reformers don't hold ideologies. Quite the reverse. The reformers' proposals are shot through with their values and commitments; indeed, the reformers produce proposals that are primarily ethical and moral, but they are contrived to appear to be the technical findings of scientific analysis.

I contend that the reformers, for a variety of reasons, are neither direct nor clear about precisely how their proposals would achieve their goals. The argument typically runs like this: the poor and minorities will continue to increase in number; since these constituencies are ill served by current schools, the total system is failing to an increasing degree; at some point, our society will collapse because there will be too few workers, citizens, and taxpayers, as opposed to those merely making demands for services; and all of this means that schools must be restructured to better educate all children by "equalizing educational opportunity."

The 10 visions that follow seem to me to be the most frequently unspoken (as well as the occasionally identified) definitions of "equal educational opportunity."

Vision 1: Basic skills equity. This vision might be titled "The Case of the Missing Bottom Half." In this vision the number of 17-year-olds who can accurately complete a multiple-step math problem moves up from the present 7% to 100%. All children and adolescents can also read on grade level.

While numerous reform reports imply that upgrading basic skills is what they mean by "equalizing educational opportunity," few openly state this as their definition. Perhaps they don't do so because they cannot answer the follow-up question: "Suppose every 17-year-old in America woke up tomorrow able to read and compute on grade level. What then?" Those committed to this vision believe that, since basic skills precede and never coincide with or result from learning other things, this reform would be the ultimate breakthrough. In any event, improving student performance in the basic skills is clearly the major goal of a large group of reformers who advocate "equalizing educational opportunity."

Vision 2: Readiness for work. An alternative title for this vision might be "Forging the Horatio Alger Template." In this vision all students would not merely graduate from high school but would demonstrate that they can show up for work every day, be on time, stay on task for eight hours, cooperate with other people, and learn the particular skills required for specific entry-level jobs. In addition, all high school graduates would be educated about a free-market system and would be totally committed to the work ethic – an ethic that emphasizes effort over luck, connections, family wealth, and social background. In this vision, all that high school graduates would want is a chance to prove themselves. "Equal educational opportunity" becomes a system of schooling that produces graduates who are uniformly capable of competing for jobs in a global economy. The great interest of the business community in school reform usually derives from this vision, and it is also widely shared by educators, legislators, and the general public.

MARTIN HABERMAN is Distinguished Professor of curriculum and instruction at the University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee.

Vision 3: Citizenship. In this vision all high school graduates know their responsibilities as citizens and are committed to living law-abiding lives. Community service is an integral part of the high school curriculum, since all students must graduate knowing how to live in and improve their neighborhoods. All graduates not only would have learned the functions of government agencies but also would be committed to improving and supporting them, including the Internal Revenue Service and the criminal justice system.

Advocates of this vision are a small but hardy band of reformers who would argue that the large number of young people whose behavior is antisocial have not had "equal educational opportunity." They also contend that young people without a sense of connectedness and a series of commitments to nation and community are victims of a less-than-equal education.

Vision 4: Individual development. Some young people graduate from high school with a clear understanding of their strengths and weaknesses. They have an accurate picture of what they can do fairly well and of what interests they should pursue. Even more, they accept themselves. They are able to use this self-knowledge to select appropriate postsecondary options. Finally, these young people accept personal responsibility for their actions. They have been educated to believe that they make choices – daily, weekly, yearly – and that they must bear the consequences of their choices.

Reformers who see the fostering of self-awareness as the primary function of school believe that students have received an inferior education if they complete high school without knowing their abilities and interests, without a positive self-concept, without clear direction, and, most of all, without a sense of personal responsibility for knowing these things about themselves. This position might be captured in the phrase "The Self-Actualized Janitor." After all, if the schools were equally effective for all, it would not be merely brain surgeons or stock brokers who would have correctly explored their potentialities and be satisfied with their life choices. In this vision the schools have been unequal when individuals are somehow channeled, designated, or relegated to life options without the opportunity of fully exploring their potentials and voluntarily choosing their directions.

Vision 5: Social reconstructionism. In this vision all high school graduates will be sensitive to and knowledgeable regarding issues of equity. They will also be fully committed to taking action in order to achieve justice for themselves and others. The content of this knowledge base is "multicultural," broadly defined to include all ethnic, racial, and language groups; women; all religious groups; homosexuals; the poor and children; and those with handicapping conditions.

To educate graduates for less lofty goals than these is regarded as a failure to prepare them for successful living in American society, since that society is becoming increasingly pluralistic and extremely varied in its distribution of scarce resources and career options. Unequal educational opportunity is demonstrated in this vision by the kind of schooling that has turned out a sexist, a racist, or anyone who does not seek to redress the inequities of society.

Vision 6: Intellectual development. In this vision all high school graduates will have learned a basic, common core of knowledge regarding the great ideas that are the foundation of Western culture. While some subsequently pursue these interests in colleges and universities, all graduates will be lifelong learners and will continue to pursue intellectual and cultural activities in the form of life interests, avocations, and hobbies. Local libraries all over America will be pressured by these high school graduates to expand their hours and to computerize.

In this vision, school is the threshold leading into the world of ideas. Great ideas provide the guidelines for living the good life. Many reformers who support this vision contend that it is even more important for those who do not go on to formal higher education to be introduced to these ideas and to remain lifelong students. It is clear to these reformers that those denied familiarity with the great ideas have received an inferior, less equal form of schooling.

Vision 7: Character. In this fantasy Dick and Jane conquer Watts. All high school graduates in this vision will have a set of moral values (high and commonly held ones, to be sure) whose bases they have been educated to understand clearly. Isn't everything, after all, dependent on individual choice? In this vision drugs, AIDS, physical and sexual abuse, crime, violence, and gangs are defeated because there are no longer new recruits. This is a category that includes naive reformers

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"About this time of year, I start thinking of them in the past tense."

of the "just say no" ilk and more sophisticated moral educators who support including a substantive code of behavior in the school curriculum. High school graduates will demonstrate such behaviors as honesty, cooperation, loyalty, and service to family, community, and country. Those lacking the essential character needed to function as young adults in America and in world society have had "unequal educational opportunity."

Vision 8: Demographic solution, top quartile. This vision focuses on the distribution of educational and life opportunities in terms of the degree to which they represent the population of the schools in general. For example, does the freshman class at MIT represent the economic class, sex, ethnicity, language, race, and physical makeup of the school population as a whole? Are the National Merit Scholars representative of the population? Are students with the highest test scores or the most distinguished portfolios representative? Unless and until all groups are adequately represented as recipients of the most valued (and scarcest) educational rewards, then a clear case of "unequal educational opportunity" exists.

Vision 9: Demographic solution, bottom quartile. In this vision "equal educational opportunity" is achieved when failure is representatively distributed. Dropouts, pregnant teens, those in classes for the mentally retarded, those involved with the criminal justice system, drug users, and those involved in school violence will be representative of the total population. When this goal is stated openly as a vision of "equal educational opportunity," it seems ludicrous and even bizarre. Yet, when we reflect on how frequently the public, legislators, and academics are involved in discussions and analyses of the disproportionate numbers of African Americans or members of other groups who are in prisons or on welfare, it becomes evident that, for many, "equal educational opportunity" means schooling intended simply to avoid negative consequences. There is little question that much of the reform literature emanates from individuals who are too crafty to state this vision directly but whose advocacy is clearly for other people's children, not their own. In behavioral terms "equal educational opportunity" in this vision boils down to "Get a job and stay out of jail."

Vision 10: Inputs. Unlike the preceding nine, hard-headed visions that focus on the effects of schooling, this is the vision of those denigrated as "bleeding hearts." These are the reformers who advocate investing amounts of money, human resources, and care in the schooling of children and young people in poverty equivalent to those invested in the education of advantaged youngsters. These reformers are easily crushed by "research" since their focus is on what goes into decent education rather than on the "scientific" assessment of outcomes. In this vision such commonsense proposals as rat-free school buildings, class sizes under 30, decent teachers, or spending more than $1.50 per year per student for science materials are advocated as "equalizing educational opportunity."

Courts and legislators frequently get bogged down with this input vision, but they inevitably figure out a way around it. "Researchers" who can prove that more spending doesn't correlate with more learning have been helpful in changing the public view of this once-popular vision. Fewer citizens these days would accept increasing such unscientific input resources as their definition of "equal educational opportunity" – especially if it meant raising their property taxes.

IT MIGHT appear to some readers that what we need are all 10 visions. After all, they don't appear to be mutually exclusive. Unfortunately, the way reform takes place in real schools in the real world requires us to be precise, not vague, about what the reform is intended to accomplish. Indeed, one of the best explanations for the current state of affairs is that schools have been quite willing to adopt the rhetoric of all these visions. They then claim to be too overburdened to implement any one set of reforms in sufficient depth to actually achieve any single, coherent state of "equal educational opportunity."

It is an effective co-opting strategy, much like the strategy of the native who converts to a new religion without telling the most recent missionary that he has already joined 24 churches with rival explanations of God, the universe, and the hereafter. For those who doubt that the schools use this co-opting strategy, I would state unequivocally that there are few reforms currently written or discussed – no matter how creative – that the major school systems of America cannot point to and say, "We are already doing that!" They can even produce a well-written report, complete with tables and bound in plastic, that explains their program. The fact that the reform might involve only a portion of a school or only one building in a system with 143 schools is not mentioned. The fact that the reform is undertaken anywhere to any degree supports the claim that "we've tried that" and precludes widespread fundamental reform.

The basic condition preventing significant school change is that the public doesn't want it. Using demography as a scare tactic to make the public more amenable to change doesn't work either, because there are no explicit connections made between the reforms proposed and the statistical horrors used to state the problem. I believe the public has become inured to this approach because it has already been overused by those who advocate balancing the budget, reforming health care, changing the criminal justice system, overhauling the welfare system, and dealing with the housing problem.

The only strategy left to those of us who are truly interested in school reform may involve simple honesty, clarity, and some thoroughness. We should be required to begin advocating for our pet reforms with a straightforward, brief description of what the schools would look like if we were satisfied with them. Such statements would at least help readers decide whether to discard the report or continue reading.

As a starter, here's my statement. I don't know how to force schools serving children in poverty to restructure themselves, and I don't believe anyone else does either. I believe that one useful reform would be to increase the number of good teachers in second- and third-rate schools, so that all children have at least one teacher (out of more than 50 in 12 years) who cares about them and teaches them important ideas and ideals.

If you don't buy into my vision of what would make schooling more equal, you can just stop reading any new reports from me on such topics as how to recruit and prepare better teachers for children in poverty. It's too late to stop reading this one.

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Getting Reform Right: What Works and What Doesn't

There are as many myths as there are truths associated with change, Messrs. Fullan and Miles assert, and educators need to deepen the way they think about change. To that end, the authors analyze seven reasons change fails and offer seven "propositions" for successful change.

By Michael G. Fullan and Matthew B. Miles

AFTER YEARS of failed education reform, educators are more and more in the habit of saying that "knowledge of the change process" is crucial. But few people really know what that means. The phrase is used superficially, glibly, as if saying it over and over will lead to understanding and appropriate action.

We do believe that knowing about the change process is crucial. But there are as many myths as there are truths associated with change, and it is time to deepen the way we think about change. We need to assess our knowledge more critically and describe what we know. One needs a good deal of sophistication to grasp the fundamentals of the change process and to use that knowledge wisely.

We also believe that serious education reform will never be achieved until there is a significant increase in the number of people – leaders and other participants alike – who have come to internalize and habitually act on basic knowledge of how successful change takes place. Reformers talk of the need for deeper, second-order changes in the structures and cultures of schools, rather than superficial first-order changes.[1] But no change would be more fundamental than a dramatic expansion of the capacity of individuals and organizations to understand and deal with change. This generic capacity is worth more than a hundred individual success stories of implementing specific innovations. As we shall see, even individual success stories don't last long without an appreciation of how to keep changes alive.

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Rather than develop a new strategy for each new wave of reform, we must use basic knowledge about the do's and don'ts of bringing about *continuous improvement*. In this article we present this knowledge in the form of seven basic reasons why reform fails – and seven propositions that could lead to success.

WHY REFORM FAILS

Schools and districts are overloaded with problems – and, ironically, with solutions that don't work. Thus things get worse instead of better. Even our rare success stories appear as isolated pockets of excellence and are as likely to atrophy as to prosper over time. We get glimpses of the power of change, but we have little confidence that we know how to harness forces for continuous improvement. The problem is not really lack of innovation, but the enormous overload of fragmented, uncoordinated, and ephemeral attempts at change.

We begin with reasons why typical approaches do not work. In our view there are seven basic reasons why reforms fail. Though each one has its own form, these seven should be understood in combination, as a set.

1. Faulty maps of change. It's hard to get to a destination when your map doesn't accurately represent the territory you're to traverse. Everyone involved in school reform – teachers, administrators, parents, students, district staff members, consultants, board members, state department officials, legislators, materials developers, publishers, test-makers, teacher educators, researchers – has a personal map of how change proceeds. These constructs are often expressed in the form of a proposition or statement.

1. Resistance is inevitable, because people resist change.

2. Every school is unique.

3. *Plus ça change, plus c'est la même chose.*

4. Schools are essentially conservative institutions, harder to change than other organizations.

5. You just have to live reform one day at a time.

6. You need a mission, objectives, and a series of tasks laid out well in advance.

Illustration by [illegible]

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7. You can never please everyone, so just push ahead with reforms.

8. Full participation of everyone involved in a change is essential.

9. Keep it simple, stupid: go for small, easy changes rather than big, demanding ones.

10. Mandate change, because people won't do it otherwise.

People act on their maps. But maps such as these don't provide reliable or valid guidance. Some, like number 1, are simply self-sealing and tautological. Others, like number 2, are true in the abstract but totally unhelpful in providing guidance. Imagine if a Michelin guide book were to tell you that "each restaurant is unique," refuse to make ratings, and tell you that you're on your own.

Some, like number 3, have the seductive appearance of truth, though they are mostly false. It stretches the bounds of credulity to say that the schools we see today are no different from those of yesteryear or that all change efforts are self-defeating. Such maps are self-defeating. At their worst, they tell us that nothing really changes – and that nothing will work. On such self-exculpatory propositions as number 4, there's simply very little evidence, and what there is leads to the verdict of "not proven."[2]

Sometimes our maps are in conflict with themselves or with the maps of colleagues. For example, number 5 advocates the virtues of improvisation, while number 6 lauds rational planning. In fact, the literature on organizational change and a recent study of major change in urban high schools show that *neither* statement is valid as a guide to successful school reform.[3] The same appears to be true for propositions 7 and 8.

Still other mapping statements are directly contradicted by empirical evidence. For example, though number 9 looks obvious, studies of change have repeatedly found that substantial change efforts that address multiple problems are more likely to succeed and survive than small-scale, easily trivialized innovations.[4]

And number 10, as attractive as it may be politically, simply doesn't work. Indeed, it often makes matters worse. You can't mandate important changes, because they require skill, motivation, commitment, and discretionary judgment on the part of those who must change.[5]

Our aim here is not to debunk all our maps. Maps are crucial. But unless a map is a valid representation of the territory, we won't get where we want to go. Later in this article, we will outline a map that, we believe, corresponds well with the real territory of change.

We must have an approach to reform that acknowledges that we may not know all the answers.

2. Complex problems. Another major reason for the failure of reform is that the solutions are not easy – or even known in many cases. A number of years ago Arthur Wise labeled this problem the "hyperrationalization" of reform:

> To create goals for education is to will that something occur. But goals, in the absence of a theory of how to achieve them, are mere wishful thinking. If there is no reason to believe a goal is attainable – perhaps evidenced by the fact that it has never been attained – then a rational planning model may not result in goal attainment.[6]

The reform agenda has broadened in fundamental ways in the last five years. One need only mention the comprehensive reform legislation adopted in virtually every state and the scores of restructuring efforts in order to realize that current change efforts are enormously complex – both in the substance of their goals and in the capacity of individuals and institutions to carry out and coordinate reforms.

Education *is* a complex system, and its reform is even more complex. Even if one considers only seemingly simple, first-order changes, the number of components and their interrelationships are staggering: curriculum and instruction, school organization, student services, community involvement, teacher inservice training, assessment, reporting, and evaluation. Deeper, second-order changes in school cultures, teacher/student relationships, and values and expectations of the system are all the more daunting.

Furthermore, higher-order educational goals for all students require knowledge and abilities that we have never demonstrated. In many cases, we simply don't know how to proceed; solutions have yet to be developed. This is no reason to stop trying, but we must remember that it is folly to act as if we know how to solve complex problems in short order. We must have an approach to reform that acknowledges that we don't necessarily know all the answers, that is conducive to developing solutions as we go along, and that sustains our commitment and persistence to stay with the problem until we get somewhere. In other words, we need a different map for solving complex rather than simple problems.

3. Symbols over substance. In the RAND-sponsored study of federal programs supporting educational change, Paul Berman and Milbrey McLaughlin found that some school districts adopted external innovations for opportunistic reasons rather than to solve a particular problem. These apparent reforms brought extra resources (which were not necessarily used for the intended purpose), symbolized that action was being taken (whether or not follow-up occurred), and furthered the careers of the innovators (whether or not the innovation succeeded). Thus the mere appearance of innovation is sometimes sufficient for achieving political success.

Education reform is as much a political as an educational process, and it has both negative and positive aspects. One need not question the motives of political decision makers to appreciate the negative. Political time lines are at variance with the time lines for education reform. This difference often results in vague goals, unrealistic schedules, a preoccupation with symbols of reform (new legislation, task forces, commissions, and the like), and shifting priorities as political pressures ebb and flow.

We acknowledge that symbols are essential for success. They serve to crystallize images and to attract and generate political power and financial resources. Symbols can also provide personal and collective meaning and give people faith and confidence when they are dealing with unclear goals and complex situations.[7] They are essential for galvanizing visions, acquiring resources, and carrying out concerted action. When symbols and substance are congruent, they form a powerful combination.

Nonetheless, reform often fails because politics favors symbols over substance. Substantial change in practice requires a lot of hard and clever work "on the ground," which is not the strong point of political players. After several experiences with the dominance of symbolic change over substantive change, people become cynical and take the next change that comes along much less seriously.

Symbolic change does not have to be without substance, however. Indeed, the best examples of effective symbols are grounded in rituals, ceremonies, and other events in the daily life of an organization. While we cannot have effective reform without symbols, we can easily have symbols without effective reform – the predominant experience of most educators and one that predisposes them to be skeptical about *all* reforms.

Reforms also fail because our attempts to solve problems are frequently superficial.

4. **Impatient and superficial solutions.** Reforms also fail because our attempts to solve problems are frequently superficial. Superficial solutions, introduced quickly in an atmosphere of crisis, normally make matters worse.[8] This problem is all the more serious now that we are tackling large-scale reforms, for the consequences of failure are much more serious.

Reforms in structure are especially susceptible to superficiality and unrealistic time lines, because they can be launched through political or administrative mandates. Two examples at opposite ends of the political spectrum provide cases in point. A recent study of the impact of statewide testing in two states found that, while new testing mandates caused action at the local level, they also narrowed the curriculum and created adverse conditions for reform:

> [C]oping with the pressure to attain satisfactory results in high-stakes tests caused educators to develop almost a "crisis mentality" in their approach, in that they jumped quickly into "solutions" to address a specific issue. They narrowed the range of instructional strategies from which they selected means to instruct their students; they narrowed the content of the material they chose to present to students; and they narrowed the range of course offerings available to students.[9]

Site-based management – opposite in many ways to the strategy of centralized testing – also shows problems associated with structural reforms. Daniel Levine and Eugene Eubanks, among others, have indicated how school-based models often result in changes in formal decision-making structures but rarely result in a focus on developing instructional skills or on changing the culture of schools.[10] There are numerous other examples of new legislation and policies – career ladders, mentoring and induction policies, testing and competency requirements, and so on – being rushed into place with little forethought about possible negative consequences and side effects.

A related bane of reform is faddism. Schools, districts, and states are under tremendous pressure to reform. Innovation and reform are big business, politically and economically. The temptation is great to latch on to the quick fix, to go along with the trend, to react uncritically to endorsed innovations as they come and go. Local educators experience most school reforms as fads.

There are two underlying problems. One is that mistaken or superficial solutions are introduced; the other is that,

"For many years, you've been preparing to enter uncharted waters – and today you walk the plank."

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even when the solution is on the right track, hasty implementation leads to failure. Structural solutions are relatively easy to initiate under the right political conditions, but they are no substitute for the hard work, skill, and commitment needed to blend different structural changes into a successful reform effort. In other words, changes in structure must go hand in hand with changes in culture and in the individual and collective capacity to work through new structures. Because education reform is so complex, we cannot know in advance exactly which new structures and behavioral patterns should go together or how they should mesh. But we do know that neglecting one or the other is a surefire recipe for failure.

5. Misunderstanding resistance. Things hardly ever go easily during change efforts. Since change necessarily involves people, and people can commit willed actions, it seems natural to attribute progress that is slower than we might wish to their "resistance." Before a recent workshop, one of us asked a group of principals to list the problems they faced in a specific change project. More than half said "resistance" – variously known as intransigence, entrenchment, fearfulness, reluctance to buy in, complacency, unwillingness to alter behaviors, and failure to recognize the need for change. These traits were attributed to teachers and other staff members, though not to the principals themselves.

But it is usually unproductive to label an attitude or action "resistance." It diverts attention from real problems of implementation, such as diffuse objectives, lack of technical skill, or insufficient resources for change. In effect, the label also individualizes issues of change and converts everything into a matter of "attitude." Because such labeling places the blame (and the responsibility for the solution) on others, it immobilizes people and leads to "if only" thinking.

Change does involve individual attitudes and behaviors, but they need to be framed as natural responses to transition, not misunderstood as "resistance." During transitions from a familiar to a new state of affairs, individuals must normally confront the loss of the old and commit themselves to the new, unlearn old beliefs and behaviors and learn new ones, and move from anxiousness and uncertainty to stabilization and coherence. Any significant change involves a period of intense personal and organizational learning and problem solving. People need supports for such work, not displays of impatience.

Failure to institutionalize an innovation underlies the disappearance of many reforms.

Blaming "resistance" for the slow pace of reform also keeps us from understanding that individuals and groups faced with something new need to assess the change for its genuine possibilities and for how it bears on their self-interest. From computers across the curriculum, to mainstreaming, to portfolio assessments, to a radical change in the time schedule, significant changes normally require extra effort during the transitional stage. Moreover, there's little certainty about the kinds of outcomes that may ensue for students and teachers (and less assurance that they will be any better than the status quo). These are legitimate issues that deserve careful attention.

Many reform initiatives are ill-conceived, and many others are fads. The most authentic response to such efforts is resistance. Nevertheless, when resistance is misunderstood, we are immediately set on a self-defeating path. Reframing the legitimate basis of most forms of resistance will allow us to get a more productive start and to isolate the real problems of improvement.

6. Attrition of pockets of success. There are many examples of successful reforms in individual schools – cases in which the strong efforts of teachers, principals, and district administrators have brought about significant changes in classroom and school practice.[11] We do not have much evidence about the durability of such successes, but we have reason to believe that they may not survive if the conditions under which they developed are changed.

Successful reforms have typically required enormous effort on the part of one or more individuals – effort that may not be sustainable over time. For example, staff collaboration takes much energy and time to develop, yet it can disappear overnight when a few key people leave. What happens outside the school – such as changes in district policies on the selection and transfer of teachers and principals – can easily undo gains that have been made.

Local innovators, even when they are successful in the short run, may burn themselves out or unwittingly seal themselves off from the surrounding environment. Thus schools can become hotbeds of innovation and reform in the absence of external support, but they cannot *stay* innovative without the continuing support of the district and other agencies. Innovative schools may enjoy external support from a critically important sponsor (e.g., the district superintendent) or from a given agency only to see that support disappear when the sponsor moves on or the agency changes policies. Of course, the failure to institutionalize an innovation and build it into the normal structures and practices of the organization underlies the disappearance of many reforms.[12]

We suspect that few things are more discouraging than working hard against long odds over a period of time to achieve a modicum of success – only to see it evaporate in short order as unrelated events take their toll. It is not enough to achieve isolated pockets of success. Reform fails unless we can demonstrate that pockets of success add up to new structures, procedures, and school cultures that press for continuous improvement. So far there is little such evidence.

7. Misuse of knowledge about the change process. The final problem is related to a particular version of faulty maps: "knowledge" of the change process is often cited as the authority for taking certain actions. Statements such as "Ownership is the key to reform," "Lots of inservice training is required," "The school is the unit of change," "Vision and leadership are critical," and so on are all half-truths. Taken literally, they can be misused.

Reform is systemic, and actions based on knowledge of the change process must be systemic, too. To succeed we need to link a number of key aspects of knowledge and maintain the connections before and during the process of change. In the following section we offer seven such themes, which we believe warrant being called propositions for success.

PROPOSITIONS FOR SUCCESS

The seven basic themes or lessons derived from current knowledge of successful change form a set and must be contemplated in relation to one another. When it comes to reform, partial theories are not very useful. We can say flatly that reform will not be achieved until these seven orientations have been incorporated into the thinking and reflected in the actions of those involved in change efforts.

1. Change is learning — loaded with uncertainty. Change is a process of coming to grips with new personal meaning, and so it is a learning process. Peter Marris states the problem this way:

> When those who have the power to manipulate changes act as if they have only to explain, and when their explanations are not at once accepted, shrug off opposition as ignorance or prejudice, they express a profound contempt for the meaning of lives other than their own. For the reformers have already assimilated these changes to their purposes, and worked out a reformulation which makes sense to them, perhaps through months or years of analysis and debate. If they deny others the chance to do the same, they treat them as puppets dangling by the threads of their own conceptions.[13]

Even well-developed innovations represent new meaning and new learning for those who encounter them initially and require time to assimilate them. So many studies have documented this early period of difficulty that we have given it a label — "the implementation dip."[14] Even in cases where reform eventually succeeds, things will often go wrong before they go right. Michael Huberman and Matthew Miles found that the absence of early difficulty in a reform effort was usually a sign that not much was being attempted; superficial or trivial change was being substituted for substantial change.[15]

More complex reforms, such as restructuring, represent even greater uncertainty: first, because more is being attempted; second, because the solution is not known in advance. In short, anxiety, difficulties, and uncertainty are *intrinsic to all successful change.*

Ownership of a reform cannot be achieved *in advance* of learning something new.

One can see why a climate that encourages risk-taking is so critical. People will not venture into uncertainty unless there is an appreciation that difficulties encountered are a natural part of the process. And if people do not venture into uncertainty, no significant change will occur.

Understanding successful change as learning also puts ownership in perspective. In our view, ownership of a reform cannot be achieved *in advance* of learning something new. A deep sense of ownership comes only through learning. In this sense, ownership is stronger in the middle of a successful change process than at the beginning and stronger still at the end. Ownership is both a process and a state.

The first proposition for success, then, is to understand that all change involves learning and that all learning involves coming to understand and to be good at something new. Thus conditions that support learning must be part and parcel of any change effort. Such conditions are also necessary for the valid rejection of particular changes, because many people reject complex innovations prematurely, that is, before they are in a sound position to make such a judgment.

2. Change is a journey, not a blueprint. If change involved implementing single, well-developed, proven innovations one at a time, perhaps we could make blueprints for change. But school districts and schools are in the business of implementing a bewildering array of innovations and policies simultaneously. Moreover, reforms that aim at restructuring are so multifaceted and complex that solutions for any particular setting cannot be known in advance. If one tries to account for the complexity of the situation with an equally complex implementation plan, the process will become unwieldy, cumbersome, and usually unsuccessful.

There can be no blueprints for change, because rational planning models for complex social change (such as education reform) do not work. Rather, what is needed is a guided journey. Karen Seashore Louis and Matthew Miles provide a clear analysis of this evolutionary planning process in their study of urban high schools involved in major change efforts:

> The evolutionary perspective rests on the assumption that the environment both inside and outside organizations is often chaotic. No specific plan can last for very long, because it will either become outmoded due to changing external pressures, or because disagreement over priorities arises within the organization. Yet there is no reason to assume that the best response is to plan passively, relying on incremental decisions. Instead, the organization can cycle back and forth between efforts to gain normative consensus about what it may become, to plan strategies for getting there, and to carry out decentralized incremental experimentation that harnesses the creativity of all members to the change effort. . . . Strategy is viewed as a flexible tool, rather than a semi-permanent expansion of the mission.[16]

The message is not the traditional "Plan, then do," but "Do, then plan . . . and do and plan some more." Even the development of a shared vision that is central to reform is better thought of as a journey in which people's sense of purpose is identified, considered, and continuously shaped and reshaped.

3. Problems are our friends. School

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improvement is a problem-rich process. Change threatens existing interests and routines, heightens uncertainty, and increases complexity. The typical principal in the study of urban schools conducted by Louis and Miles mentioned three or four major problems (and several minor ones) with reform efforts. They ranged from poor coordination to staff polarization and from lack of needed skills to heart attacks suffered by key figures. Problems arise naturally from the demands of the change process itself, from the people involved, and from the structure and procedures of schools and districts. Some are easily solved; others are almost intractable.

It seems perverse to say that problems are our friends, but we cannot develop effective responses to complex situations unless we actively seek and confront real problems that are difficult to solve. Problems are our friends because only through immersing ourselves in problems can we come up with creative solutions. Problems are the route to deeper change and deeper satisfaction. In this sense, effective organizations "embrace problems" rather than avoid them.

Too often, change-related problems are ignored, denied, or treated as an occasion for blame and defense. Success in school reform efforts is much more likely when problems are treated as natural, expected phenomena. Only by tracking problems can we understand what we need to do next to get what we want. Problems must be taken seriously, not attributed to "resistance" or to the ignorance and wrongheadedness of others.

What to do about problems? In their study of urban schools, Louis and Miles classified coping styles, ranging from relatively shallow ones (doing nothing at all, procrastinating, "doing it the usual way," easing off, or increasing pressure) to deeper ones (building personal capacity through training, enhancing system capacity, comprehensive restaffing, or system restructuring/redesign). They found that schools that were least successful at change *always* used shallow coping styles. Schools that were successful in changing could and did make structural changes in an effort to solve difficult problems. However, they were also willing to use Band-Aid solutions when a problem was judged to be minor. It's important to note that successful schools did *not* have fewer problems than other schools – they just coped with them better.

The enemies of good coping are passivity, denial, avoidance, conventionality, and fear of being "too radical." Good coping is active, assertive, inventive. It goes to the root of the problem when that is needed.

Success in school reform efforts is much more likely when problems are treated as natural.

We cannot cope better through being exhorted to do so. "Deep coping" – the key to solving difficult problems of reform – appears to be more likely when schools are working on a clear, shared vision of where they are heading and when they create an active coping structure (e.g., a coordinating committee or a steering group) that steadily and actively tracks problems and monitors the results of coping efforts. Such a structure benefits from empowerment, brings more resources to bear on problems, and keeps the energy for change focused. In short, the assertive pursuit of problems in the service of continuous improvement is the kind of accountability that can make a difference.

4. Change is resource-hungry. Even a moderate-sized school may spend a million dollars a year on salaries, maintenance, and materials. And that's just for keeping schools as they are, not for changing them. Change demands additional resources for training, for substitutes, for new materials, for new space, and, above all, for time. Change is "resource-hungry" because of what it represents – developing solutions to complex problems, learning new skills, arriving at new insights, all carried out in a social setting already overloaded with demands. Such serious personal and collective development necessarily demands resources.

Every analysis of the problems of change efforts that we have seen in the last decade of research and practice has concluded that time is the salient issue. Most recently, the survey of urban high schools by Louis and Miles found that the average principal with a schoolwide reform project spent 70 days a year on change management. That's 32% of an administrator's year. The teachers most closely engaged with the change effort spent some 23 days a year, or 13% of their time on reform. Since we have to keep school while we change school, such overloads are to be expected.

But time is energy. And success is likely only when the extra energy requirements of change are met through the provision of released time or through a redesigned schedule that includes space for the extra work of change.

Time is also money. And Louis and Miles discovered that serious change in big-city high schools requires an annual investment of between $50,000 and $100,000. They also found some schools spending five times that much with little to show for it. The key seemed to be whether the money simply went for new jobs and expensive equipment or was spent for local capacity-building (acquiring external assistance, training trainers, leveraging other add-on funds, and so on). Nevertheless, some minimum level of funding is always needed.

Assistance itself can be a major resource for change. It may include training, consulting, coaching, coordination, and capacity-building. Many studies have suggested that good assistance to schools is strong, sustained over years, closely responsive to local needs, and focused on building local capacity. Louis and Miles found that at least 30 days a year of *external* assistance – with more than that provided internally – was essential for success.

We can also think of educational "content resources" – such big ideas as effective schools, teaching for understanding, empowerment, and school-based management – that guide and energize the work of change. In addition, there are psychosocial resources, such as support, commitment, influence, and power. They [illegible] supposedly intangible, but they are critical for success.

The work of change requires attention not just to resources, but to "resourcing." The actions required are those of scanning the school and its environment for resources and matching them to existing needs; acquiring resources (buying, negotiating, or just plain grabbing); reworking them for a better fit to the situation; creating time through schedule changes and other arrangements; and building local capacity through the development of such structures as steering groups, coordinating committees, and cadres of local trainers.

Good resourcing requires facing up to the need for funds and abjuring any false pride about self-sufficiency. Above all, it takes willingness to invent, to go outside the frame in garnering and reworking resources. (We are reminded of the principal who used money for the heating system to pay for desperately needed repainting and renovation, saying, "I knew that, if the boiler broke, they'd have to fix it anyway.") The stance is one of steady and tenacious searching for and judicious use of the extra resources that any change requires. Asking for assistance and seeking other resources are signs of strength, not weakness.

5. Change requires the power to manage it. Change initiatives do not run themselves. They require that substantial effort be devoted to such tasks as monitoring implementation, keeping everyone informed of what's happening, linking multiple change projects (typical in most schools), locating unsolved problems, and taking clear coping action. In Louis and Miles' study, such efforts occurred literally 10 times more frequently in successfully changing schools than in unchanging ones.

There appear to be several essential ingredients in the successful management of change. First, the management of change goes best when it is carried out by a *cross-role group* (say, teachers, department heads, administrators, and – often – students and parents). In such a group different worlds collide, more learning occurs, and change is realistically managed. There is much evidence that steering a change effort in this way results in substantially increased teacher commitment.

Second, such a cross-role group needs *legitimacy* – i.e., a clear license to steer. It needs an explicit contract, widely understood in the school, as to what kinds of decisions it can make and what money it can spend. Such legitimacy is partly conferred at the front end and partly earned through the hard work of decision making and action. Most such groups do encounter staff polarization; they may be seen by others as an unfairly privileged elite; or they may be opposed on ideological grounds. Such polarization – often a sign that empowerment of a steering group is working – can be dealt with through open access to meetings, rotation of membership, and scrupulous reporting.

> The management of change goes best when it is carried out by a *cross-role group.*

Third, even empowerment has its problems, and cooperation is required to solve them. Everyone has to learn to take the initiative instead of complaining, to trust colleagues, to live with ambiguity, to face the fact that shared decisions mean conflict. Principals have to rise above the fear of losing control, and they have to hone new skills: initiating actions firmly without being seen as "controlling," supporting others without taking over for them. All these stances and skills are learnable, but they take time. Kenneth Benne remarked 40 years ago that the skills of cooperative work should be "part of the general education of our people."[17] They haven't been, so far. But the technology for teaching these skills exists. It is up to steering groups to learn to work well together, using whatever assistance is required.

Fourth, the power to manage change does not stop at the schoolhouse door. Successful change efforts are most likely when the local district office is closely engaged with the changing school in a collaborative, supportive way and places few bureaucratic restrictions in the path of reform.

The bottom line is that the development of second-order changes in the culture of schools and in the capacity of teachers, principals, and communities to make a difference *requires* the power to manage the change at the local school level. We do not advocate handing over all decisions to the school. Schools and their environments must have an interactive and negotiated relationship. But complex problems cannot be solved from a distance; the steady growth of the power to manage change must be part of the solution.

6. Change is systemic. Political pressures combine with the segmented, uncoordinated nature of educational organizations to produce a "project mentality."[18] A steady stream of episodic innovations – cooperative learning, effective schools research, classroom management, assessment schemes, career ladders, peer coaching, etc., etc. – come and go. Not only do they fail to leave much of a trace, but they also leave teachers and the public with a growing cynicism that innovation is marginal and politically motivated.

What does it mean to work systemically? There are two aspects: 1) reform must focus on the development and interrelationships of all the main *components* of the system simultaneously – curriculum, teaching and teacher development, community, student support systems, and so on; and 2) reform must focus not just on structure, policy, and regulations but on deeper issues of the *culture* of the system. Fulfilling both requirements is a tall order. But it is possible.

This duality of reform (the need to deal with system components and system culture) must be attended to at both the state and district/school levels. It involves both restructuring and "reculturing."[19] Marshall Smith and Jennifer O'Day have mapped out a comprehensive plan for systemic reform at the state level that illustrates the kind of thinking and strategies involved.[20] At the school/district level, we see in the Toronto region's Learning Consortium a rather clear example of systemic reform

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Wishful thinking and legislation have poor records as tools for social betterment.

in action.[21] Schools, supported by their districts, avoid ad hoc innovations and focus on a variety of coordinated short-term and mid- to long-term strategies. The short-term activities include inservice professional development on selected and interrelated themes; mid- to long-term strategies include vision building, initial teacher preparation, selection and induction, promotion procedures and criteria, school-based planning in a system context, curriculum reorganization, and the development of assessments. There is an explicit emphasis on new cultural norms for collaborative work and on the pursuit of continuous improvement.

Systemic reform is complex. Practically speaking, traditional approaches to innovation and reform in education have not been successful in bringing about lasting improvement. Systemic reform looks to be both more efficient and more effective, even though this proposition is less proven empirically than our other six. However, both conceptually and practically, it does seem to be on the right track.[22]

7. All large-scale change is implemented locally. Change cannot be accomplished from afar. This cardinal rule crystallizes the previous six propositions. The ideas that change is learning, change is a journey, problems are our friends, change is resource-hungry, change requires the power to manage, and change is systemic all embody the fact that *local* implementation by everyday teachers, principals, parents, and students is the only way that change happens.

This observation has both an obvious and a less obvious meaning. The former reminds us all that any interest in systemwide reform must be accompanied by a preoccupation with how it plays itself out locally. The less obvious implication can be stated as a caution: we should not assume that only the local level counts and hand everything over to the individual school. A careful reading of the seven propositions together shows that extralocal agencies have critical – though decidedly not traditional – roles to play. Most fundamentally, their role is to help bring the seven propositions to life at the local level.

Modern societies are facing terrible problems, and education reform is seen as a major source of hope for solving them. But wishful thinking and legislation have deservedly poor track records as tools for social betterment. As educators increasingly acknowledge that the "change process is crucial," they ought to know what that means at the level at which change actually takes place. Whether we are on the receiving or initiating end of change (as all of us are at one time or another), we need to understand why education reform frequently fails, and we need to internalize and live out valid propositions for its success. Living out the seven propositions for successful change means not only making the change process more explicit within our own minds and actions, but also contributing to the knowledge of change on the part of those with whom we interact. Being knowledgeable about the change process may be both the best defense and the best offense we have in achieving substantial education reform.

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ESL Policies and School Restructuring: Risks and Opportunities for Language Minority Students

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Introduction

Within the current reform movements, particularly those emphasizing participatory management, there are renewed opportunities to work toward providing more equitable instructional programs for linguistically diverse students. Such reform efforts call for individual schools, and the staff within those schools, to assume greater responsibility for meeting the needs of their communities. They also provide a greater voice for teachers in coordinating and

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cooperating on the development of programs for students within a school (Metz, 1990; Quality Education for Minorities Project, 1990). The assumption is that as an educational community each site will have the knowledge, expertise, and commitment to improve programs for all of the children they serve. However, because such reforms decentralize decision making for educational policies and practices (placing most curricular decisions in the hands of the individual schools), they also have the potential for further fragmenting and reducing services for linguistically diverse students.

For minority groups the potential risk of site-based approaches is that where once there was strength in numbers (that is, policies for students were advocated based on a broader student constituency), the shift from interdistrict to site-specific articulation of programs neutralizes this position. Consequently it may directly place the responsibility for advocating, designing, implementing, maintaining, and assessing such programs on the handful of teachers who are most involved in working with linguistically diverse students—without their having the benefit of a higher authority to back them up. These teachers may now find themselves alone in their advocacy of particular positions for a relatively small number of students within their school site. They may also find themselves having to advance positions that are relatively unknown to the general education population, and that may be not only unpopular but highly controversial as well. Advancing such positions is particularly risky if advocacy is not legitimized and supported within the context of change.

It can be successfully argued, of course, that relying on centralized systems has proven to be unsatisfactory, that many district-wide policies and programs have traditionally been flawed, hindering rather than supporting the development of instructional efforts for LEP students, and that such failures are, in fact, the catalyst for reform. Nevertheless, restructuring itself is no panacea and presents some unique challenges to achieving and maintaining the integrity and effectiveness of programs for linguistically diverse students.

Since site-based management teams have the responsibility to set policy for their schools, they most directly affect general educational goals, allocation of resources, coordination and implementation of programs, response to community needs and community interaction (McKeon & Malarz, 1991). This requires that along with the right to choose and set policy, teachers take seriously the responsibility they concomitantly acquire to be informed decision makers. With regard to the education of language minority students, this means that teachers need not only know about first and second language acquisition but must also be able to critically analyze the merits or flaws of existing programs. Specifically, with regard to English as a second language instruction, this requires a hard look

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at how we have arrived at some of the dismal policies affecting the achievement and English language development of linguistically diverse students (RAND Corp., 1991).

Although the issues in this paper may be familiar to most readers, for the most part they do not tend to be familiar to the majority of the general education community at large. The shift of responsibility for program development and implementation to a broader segment of this educational community requires that those who are knowledgeable and concerned with language minority issues be able to clearly articulate program necessities. This makes it critical to revisit and carefully review the basic premises and knowledge base developed regarding second language acquisition in order to ensure that the essential nature of second language learning does not disappear within the pragmatic concerns of reorganizing and reconceptualizing school structures.

Although this paper is primarily about English second language development, the issues discussed are addressed to both bilingual and monolingual English teachers. The paper is organized around five critical policy issues that have evolved in ESL program planning and implementation over the past decade. The faulty assumptions that are reflected in these issues and that have contributed to the fragmentation and limited success of these programs will be discussed. A theme which will recur throughout this paper is that English as a second language instruction is not considered *basic education* within our school systems. This position ultimately weakens the effectiveness of ESL programs, severely impeding the effectiveness of most ESL instructional efforts.

ESL: a stepchild in the curriculum

Despite the rhetoric that has been generated about the necessity for all Americans to speak English—passage of English-only legislation and virulent attacks on primary language use and instruction (Peterson, 1989; Porter, 1990) —school programs for the development of English language skills for language diverse students continue to be woefully inadequate (Fradd & Weismantel, 1989; National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1988). Blame for the low levels of English proficiency believed to exist in language minority communities continues to be ascribed to bilingual educators, who by advocating bilingual instruction, as the rhetoric goes, have limited English language opportunities. Blame also goes to the non-English speaking/bilingual communities, who are accused of not caring enough and shirking their civic responsibility to develop English in their communities. This rhetoric continues to be a prevalent and

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convenient smokescreen for the poor performance of many school systems in providing for the education of language minority students.

As indicated above, undermining most ESL programs within districts is the fundamental attitude that ESL instruction is supplemental and somewhat incidental. This attitude is highlighted in the following example. In an effort to consolidate services, two school districts recently developed ESL centers. Their rationale for developing these services was to consolidate resources in an attempt to provide less fragmented services to limited English proficient students. However, parents who did not want their children transported to these centers were allowed to waive ESL services. Rather than recognizing English as a second language development as a basic responsibility and curricular area that must be addressed for all students with limited English proficiency, this policy reflects the extent to which schools take language for granted. Offering ESL as a choice to parents is equivalent to a district creating a center for the learning of reading and allowing parents to waive their child's literacy instruction. How is learning English less basic? The attitude that ESL is supplemental surfaces again and again in examples of staffing, time allocation, and integration of ESL into the curriculum, issues which will be discussed below.

In the above example the school district was trying to address the need for better program implementation, even though their fundamental assumption regarding the importance of second language instruction ultimately may leave many students unserved. Such policies contribute to perpetuating the extraordinary statistics of *nonserved* language minority students which have been reported in the literature. Approximately 85% of eligible students receive no services (either bilingual or ESL) at all (National Council of La Raza, 1985; Olson, 1986). These statistics point to a lack of concern on the part of educational systems to improve the learning situation of second language students—all rhetoric aside.

Even when students do receive ESL services, the level and quality of these services are often questionable. Several additional faulty assumptions have continued to guide language development instructional policies, affecting decisions regarding the design of ESL programs and ultimately weakening their effectiveness. They include such notions as the following: (a) Minimal support leads to development of language skills sufficient for academic success; (b) if content is repeated often enough it will eventually be understood; and (c) if there is a lot of talk in the classroom environment students are automatically insured of language development. Although addressed and debunked in studies reviewed by Wong-Fillmore & Valadez (1986) and others, these attitudes still persist in schools.

ESL services also tend to be limited in scope and to reflect a great deal of variability in quality and allotment of instructional time across programs even within a single district (National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1988). They traditionally last only one or two years and offer limited daily instructional time (Nadeau & Miramontes, 1988); have restricted content which is often not linked to the content of the students' other educational activities (Chamot & O'Malley, 1989; Berman, *et al.*, 1992); are inadequately monitored; and, are often taught by tutors or paraprofessionals with minimal training (National Forum on Personnel Needs, 1990). These conditions give rise to four additional issues that must be addressed if ESL programs are to improve. These issues are discussed below.

Issue 1: What is ESL, really?

In order to address some of the most deleterious assumptions with regard to ESL instruction, a common base of understanding needs to be developed and shared within a site-based decision-making setting if sound educational decisions are the goal. As indicated, there is a lack of clarity as well as many misunderstandings about what ESL is and what it is intended to accomplish. Figure 1 presents some basic premises reflecting essential areas which might govern the design and implementation of ESL programs. They are presented in juxtaposition to some current interpretations of ESL in order to emphasize their unique nature.

Each of the premises reflecting what ESL is has particular implications for the kinds of issues that must be understood and negotiated within a system of participatory management if language minority students are to be adequately served within a school community. Premises regarding what ESL is not reflect faulty assumptions which often dictate the level of services.

For a school moving toward site-based management, clear distinctions about the nature of ESL must be determined and used to maintain the integrity of English development for second language learners. They must be used during the restructuring process to guide decision making with regard to instruction and to prevent the reshuffling of the school configurations to reflect only structural rather than instructional shifts.

Figure 1. Basic premises for English as a Second language instruction[1].

WHAT ESL IS	WHAT ESL IS NOT
•essential language development for L2 speakers	•special or remedial education
•planned, daily instruction for second language acquisition	•just being in an all-English environment
•separate instruction time when L2 learners have the opportunity to express themselves	•an instructional time when L2 learners have to compete with fluent English speakers in order to participate
•second language development through comprehensible content area instruction	•simply language arts for native English speakers
•sequential, strategic curriculum delivery using ESL methodologies	•tutoring
•communication-based	•grammar-based
•teaching English to L2 students, which may include multicultural perspectives	•multicultural education
•incorporating multicultural aspects	•an assimilation program
•an essential, integral part of the students' academic program	•supplemental
•coordinated with, and reinforced by, the classroom teacher at the elementary level	•an isolated language learning program
•a program whose implementation is the responsibility of certified personnel with ESL training	•the responsibility of para-professional personnel
•the provision of English language support in the transition from explicit ESL instruction to modified classroom curriculum	•not abrupt cessation of English language support

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[1] Developed with L. Widger-Alire, M. Carr, M. Olguin, A. Frant, D. Lester, and G. Trapp.

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Issue 2: ESL's role in the broader curriculum

In site-based schemes school staff assume a major responsibility for determining the direction of the curriculum. Therefore, they need to assess the interaction and impact of particular curricular strategies on English as a second language development. Two curriculum change movements are presently having a significant impact on the implementation of ESL instruction: (a) the movement toward process oriented approaches to instruction; and (b) the movement toward development of more cooperative, integrative classroom settings.

(a) *Structure vs. process.* Certainly, although approaches such as whole language for reading and cooperative learning strategies for social studies and science have opened many opportunities for students to experience a broader and more meaningful interaction with learning, they have also raised questions and concerns among teachers with relation to their role in direct, intentional, mediated instruction. For example, because these philosophies and strategies for instruction are difficult to implement masterfully, many teachers are unsure of their role regarding students' instruction and as a result are hesitant to exert their role as teacher for fear of interrupting the process. Peer interaction is often the default position, regardless of quality. The lack of balance between the basic orientations of process vs. direct instruction, student vs. teacher input, and unstructured vs. structured time have caused critics to question the loss of access some children will have to more directed, specific interactions with teachers. For example, as Delpit (1989) and others have argued, it is often important to make explicit the aims and rules of instruction (the hidden curriculum), particularly for children who have little experience with the implicit culture of classrooms. And, although excited by the possibilities these process strategies provide, many teachers themselves worry about how students will learn the basic skills they need.

Process approaches have also tended to make many teachers reluctant to structure time for specific activities such as ESL (a phenomenon particularly prevalent although by no means unique to bilingual classes). Instead, the fact that English is used in the setting is considered to be sufficient. As the reasoning goes, either plenty of English is used, particularly with peers, so that students will pick up the language, or students are considered to be in a bilingual setting, so they'll understand (i.e., it can be translated for them). In the first case, it is extremely difficult to understand how this position is different from the sink or swim position so soundly refuted by experience and research (Krashen, 1983,

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1986; Cummins, 1984). In the second case, using one language to mediate the other is a poor strategy for developing a sophisticated use of either language (Wong-Fillmore, 1986). Nevertheless, throughout the educational system these faulty assumptions persist.

(b) *Integrating ESL into regular classroom activities.* Schools involved in reform are generally actively seeking to develop new patterns of interaction between and among students and teachers. As discussed above, ESL programs generally have been conducted on a pull-out basis and lack coherence with regular classroom activities. There has long been an obvious need to link ESL curriculum to the content and activity of the classroom (Chamot & O'Malley, 1989).

And yet, adopting a policy which completely integrates LEP students into the regular classroom often becomes a double edged sword. Although total separation from the regular program is a distinct limitation of all specialized programs (Allington, 1991), totally assimilating ESL into the regular classroom program can (though need not) result in a default to submersion with no special attention given to specific linguistic interactions and elaboration of the ability to use English for academic content. The process approaches as well as movements toward integrating curriculum often blur the line between the necessity to address specific needs and the drive never to place students in homogeneous groups for special instruction. In fact, they are often perceived to be competing objectives.

Because the tendency in classrooms is toward directing instruction at the level of the native English speaker, much of what is being communicated in a classroom may not be fully comprehensible to the limited English proficient student (Krashen, 1984). Consequently, many language minority students miss a great deal of information and can also become inhibited from fully expressing themselves in situations where they must compete constantly with those more proficient than themselves.

This sense of timidity can be intensified when there is not a critical mass of language minority students within the classroom setting. Policies which encourage diffusing the language minority population throughout the school, while giving the broader school population the opportunity to interact with children of different language and cultural backgrounds, often diffuses the instructional efforts to address more specifically the needs of the language minority child. This is tantamount to making minority children a part of other children's curriculum, sometimes at the expense of their own development.

Eliminating small, homogeneous groups which may be one of the few settings in which limited English proficient students can comfortably play with language,

practice their second language in a safe environment, and develop their English proficiency in a noncompetitive setting, severely restricts their overall opportunities for English language development. The result is often little proficiency in expressing themselves on academic subjects (Commins & Miramontes, 1989). Eventually this takes its toll in other areas such as written expression. Carlos, in the following example, is a child for whom total integration has yielded limited understanding. Carlos is in a school that focuses a great deal of attention on experiential learning. The environment is full of wonderful materials. In one corner a group is putting together a chicken skeleton, in another the students are labeling the bones in the body using a model they have made, and in another a child is reading a story to several of her classmates. Carlos moves from group to group, but most of the conversations move too quickly for him. He can usually understand what the teacher is trying to get across but usually only points or nods in reply. When he goes home he tells his mother about the general nature of the activities, but he does not remember the specific words for the different topics he has heard about in class. He does not know how to say femur, knuckles, etc. Although the environment is rich in language, much of it is inaccessible to Carlos because he does not understand a great deal of what is being communicated. In addition, he finds it difficult to express himself when conversations move quickly. Carlos' case presents an example of how integration can become submersion and raises a dilemma with regard to whether students should ever be homogeneously grouped.

Given the negative findings on tracking which has been particularly harmful to minority students (Oaken, 1985), caution must be exercised in planning instructional groups. However, there are multiple ways of grouping students throughout a day, throughout an instructional sequence, and throughout theme cycles which balance special needs with integrative experiences.

Issues raised by the discussion of structure vs. process as well as the integration of both children and curriculum movements highlight the fact that schools as institutions and students as individuals sometimes have competing needs that must be balanced. Rather than throwing them both out, a balance needs to be struck between grouping for specific purposes and integrating students. This balance is dependent on a school staff developing an understanding of what is *unique* about second language instruction—that is, what types of opportunities need to be provided, what level of development and proficiency must be attained in order to successfully achieve academically, and what it takes to achieve this proficiency. In this respect, ESL is not simply the use of specific methodologies but also includes those methodologies used in particular contexts. It can also be thought of as learning to function effectively in English across a

variety of situations. ESL exists primarily within situational interactions—opportunities to try English skills in a nonthreatening, noncompetitive environment; opportunities to rely solely on their second language understanding; opportunities to articulate academic ideas that will need to be intellectually defended and supported; opportunities to learn to read and write; and opportunities for social language interactions. School instructional policies which disregard the need to balance competing needs will not enhance learning for second language students.

This brings us back to the idea that the level at which students will need to function across settings must be assessed in relationship to the demands that will be placed on them—the types of proficiency that the school expects for academic success and that their bilingual as well as monolingual communities require for social and affective success (Zentalla, 1988). For example, social oral proficiency alone is not sufficient because literacy is necessary for a variety of forms of success; literacy without social oral proficiency, on the other hand, is not sufficient because of the need to communicate orally at school, in jobs, and socially in *both* communities. Students then, must be able to engage in the types of activities that will produce success in the variety of settings in which they will be required to perform.

Issue 3: Special funding dictating pedagogy

Under site-based management, school staff have more say in the way resources are distributed and used within a school. Staff make judgements about what programs and instructional strategies are most important to develop and maintain. Although some categorical funding will continue to be targeted for particular programs, it will be important for schools to examine the damaging tendency to allow special funding to dictate pedagogy. For example, pressures to maintain the criteria for movement of students out of ESL at minimal levels persist in most school districts. Although research evidence indicates that it takes five years or more for students with limited English proficiency to achieve academic proficiency in English (Cummins, 1981; Collier, 1989), services for those students who receive them are typically only funded for two to three years (Nadeau & Miramontes, 1988). Therefore, criteria for termination of services are often reduced to the minimum time that state funding for such services is provided. Aside from the fact that students may not have had sufficient time to develop academic proficiency in English which would allow them to be able to deal successfully with a broad variety of content, movement out of ESL

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programs leaves general education teachers believing that students are "fixed," and are ready to perform just like native English speakers. Such assumptions set into motion a chain of perceptions that can limit opportunities for language minority students.

Since most general education teachers have had only minimal (if any) exposure to second language acquisition requirements and methodologies, it is perhaps not extraordinary that they interpret termination of ESL services this way (Urzua, 1989). In addition, since program planning for ESL students is generally handled outside of the classroom, discussions among staff rarely focus on the role of general education teachers in ESL. Therefore, the need for specific support systems within the classroom is not highlighted, and the fact that classroom teacher involvement and support should actually intensify *after* ESL services are terminated, is not discussed. Classroom teachers do not recognize the critical role they need to play in the continued linguistic development of second language learners (Rigg & Allen, 1989). Transitions to all-English instruction with support rarely occur, and instead students may find themselves from one day to the next receiving instruction and competing for grades as if they were native English speakers (Shannon, 1991).

A minimalist approach to second language needs tends to maintain and reinforce additional faulty assumptions such as the belief that with 30-60 minutes of English language instruction per day ESL students should be able to acquire and use English at a level of proficiency similar to that of native speakers. At the same time, of course, they are also expected to learn all new content through this second language.

The allocation of resources function of site-based management teams has the potential for changing the short-sighted, negative policies of allowing legislative funding to dictate instructional programs. School policies can be changed to reflect pedagogical understandings of second language acquisition not simply to reflect legislative resource allocations. This means that ESL instruction would be supported and reinforced throughout the LEP students' curriculum to promote attainment of academic goals, and that general education teachers with ESL students in their classes would use second language strategies in their instruction. This of course will be seen as increasingly difficult to accomplish in an era of shrinking resources. Reorganization is certainly no guarantee of positive and effective change, since its success depends directly on the composition, knowledge, orientation, and collaboration of the school staff. However, creative solutions which use resources more effectively can emerge out of restructuring schools and coordinating school programs.

Issue 4: The general educator's responsibility in ESL

Present policies in schools of education which exclude ESL instruction as part of the required knowledge base for new teachers to teach successfully and district requirements for employment that fail to include a background in first and second language acquisition also serve to reinforce the idea that English second language development is not basic education. Such policies significantly impede the sharing of responsibility for ESL instruction within school sites. Goal setting and coordination of programs, however, is an important function of site based teams. As a community of professional educators, staff in such schools are specifically charged with the responsibility for making decisions with regard to the most effective progress for children within their community. Schools that participate in site-based decision making, therefore, have increased possibilities of linking and articulating student programs across grades.

Traditionally, a major limiting factor for the development of English language proficiency for limited English proficient students has been that ESL programs have tended to be understaffed, with students frequently receiving a majority of their instruction from paraprofessionals (National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1988). The consequences of such policies have been limited and fragmented second language acquisition experiences for students. Although well intentioned, paraprofessionals too often lack the training and skills necessary to design and implement instruction for language and literacy development (California State Department of Education, 1984). When ESL instruction is not coordinated with and reinforced by the classroom teachers, teachers are not able to follow the LEP students' progress, they may engage in very little direct instruction with these students, and in general they may have little contact with them.

When students have limited access to the teachers, they are less likely to encounter the notions of language development as expanding the capability to articulate arguments clearly, as a vehicle for learning to analyze ideas, and as an expression of meaning. Disconnecting teachers from the learning of limited English proficient students therefore creates a lack of appreciation for student growth, diminishes understanding of what the student needs, and can foster a sense of helplessness on the part of the teacher toward a student. The sense of responsibility for student instruction is undermined when teachers feel that student needs are being better met elsewhere.

The cummulative effect of inadequate language support over time has been devastating for many Latino students. The consequence of the combination of

limited support and lack of development in English second language skills has been that limited English proficient students are often promptly placed in remedial reading (with all its attendant stigmas) when ESL services terminate. For example, Juan had been in ESL for two years. He was a lively and talkative youngster, communicated well with his classmates, and made great progress. His classroom teacher felt that it was time for him to participate more fully in his classroom, and she reported that he enjoyed taking reading books home to share with his mother. At the time, his ESL teacher had informally invited Juan to share those books with her, and although he was able to tell a story about the pictures, he was able to read only a very few words. Nevertheless, his oral proficiency was much better than most of the other students in her ESL class.

It was decided that Juan was ready to move out of ESL. He was placed in the low reading group in his classroom, with great hopes that he would be able to move to a higher level within a few months. As time passed, however, his teacher was disappointed by his inability to catch on to the stories he was reading. His oral reading was slow and halting, and he often seemed confused. It was decided that Juan needed special help with reading, and he was accepted for remedial reading with the reading specialist. Although Juan began to progress slowly with special help focused on phonetic instruction and repetition, his teachers felt they had misjudged his ability to succeed. They wondered if, perhaps, he might have a learning disability which was hindering his progress.

Without clear communication and articulation among programs about second language issues within a school, teachers of remedial reading often function under the faulty assumption that students have received adequate exposure to and practice with English (otherwise the child would be in ESL) and that an appropriate developmental sequence of instruction has been used in their reading instruction. They then proceed to use a remedial approach because they believe that the students have not succeeded even though they have been provided with an adequate opportunity to learn to read. The problems attendant to remedial reading programs become the determiners of the next phase of many linguistically diverse students' education. Disconnected pull-out services become the norm, and reductionist curricula often further limit their opportunities to develop more advanced skills in English (Diaz, 1986). Consequently, language minority students move into their own track, a track many students never leave. It often includes various sorts of remediation and may eventually lead to special education placement (Ortiz & Maldonado, 1986; Miramontes, 1988).

This cycle is no doubt also familiar to most readers. It occurs when little or no effort is made to support language minority students as they work to develop the ability to deal with all content, across all areas of the curriculum in the same

fashion as a native English speaker. These students usually find themselves alone in their struggle to negotiate the curriculum, and it is perhaps not surprising that so many give up the fight. Readers may recognize such students as those labelled by many educators as "mixed-dominant" and ascribed poor conceptual skills (Commins & Miramontes, 1989; Ruiz, 1989; Trueba, 1989). Until there is a broader understanding and acceptance of what it takes to become academically proficient in a second language and to live successfully in bilingual communities, and until second language support is coordinated across academic contexts over time, the toll will continue.

Site-based approaches have the potential for creating learning communities where there is true shared responsibility for student instruction throughout the school and for counteracting policies which isolate instruction for language minority students. A school that understands and is working closely with its community would be expected to take a more comprehensive approach to the development of students' academic skills over time. Criteria for terminating support services for second language learners can be made more congruent with the performance expected of students across academic contexts.

Summary and Conclusions

Reform efforts, particularly those focused on site-based management approaches have the potential to improve awareness, cooperation, and instructional programs within schools and to stimulate greater parent and community involvement. On the other hand greater individual school autonomy presents the potential for further fragmenting efforts and resources for language minority students if the requirements for student learning are not more broadly understood by the staff.

What are the implications of this changing social and management structure within schools for English second language instruction? First it will be critical for all school staff to understand what aspects of ESL instruction can and cannot be traded off structurally if students are to succeed academically in English. Second, instructional programs need to be strengthened.

The following can be considered a partial checklist of factors that need to be addressed as a school staff work through their reorganization process.

1. Policies which clearly define the nature of ESL services must be explicitly articulated in order to clarify instructional goals and intended outcomes and to guide the restructuring of programs for LEP students.
2. Congruence between a school's goals for its limited English proficient

students and the experiences and instruction it provides for them must be examined and critically evaluated.

3. A careful examination of the assumptions and values reflected in existing English second language instructional policies must be conducted, particularly as they reflect the current knowledge base in research and practice.

4. The roles of individuals within the total school program must be re-examined and redefined in relation to second language learning.

5. Differences between ESL and remedial reading instructional programs—in terms of criteria for establishing need, differences in learners' background, and differences in approach for first and second language speakers—must be generally understood throughout the school.

6. Policies and rhetoric which divide ethnic and linguistic communities and staff must be discouraged and replaced.

7. Policies which support consideration of remedial reading as the backup support for language minority student must also be eliminated.

8. Paths which lead students directly from ESL to remedial services must be identified and eliminated.

9. Schemes for integrating language minority students into the curriculum that merely include these students physically in activities without adaptions for comprehension must not be allowed.

10. Policies which deny the need for grouping and intentional instruction that provides second language speakers a safe, nonthreatening, noncompetitive setting in which to practice and explore second language learning must be examined. Finding creative and positive ways of balancing groupings and types of instruction for particular needs should to be given a high priority.

11. Policies which reflect expectations that general education teachers should play an active role in second language instruction must be developed and made explicit across educational institutions.

12. Policies that promote the inclusion of students' language, values, and culture so that a bilingual child's languages do not become an either/or proposition must be implemented.

13. Finally, the recognition needs to be developed that children who live in bilingual homes will always have need for their bilingualism, and that they may experience language differently than monolinguals making it critical to foster connections.

If all this sounds like what we should already be doing, it is. But we aren't. And, if there is to be any chance that real changes in instructional practices for language minority students are to result from school reform, we cannot expect to see improvements until the same old problems are met head on. New words

will not change reality, and the pitfalls that restructuring movements present must be examined.

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The Connection Between Urban School Reform and Urban Student Populations: How Are Urban School Reform Efforts Addressing the Needs of Language Minority Students?

Toni Griego Jones

Introduction

Language minority students in urban schools

Student populations in urban schools are composed of a variety of socio-

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economic groups, racial and ethnic groups, and every other type of category used to label students. Included in that diversity are students whose home language is something other than English. Recent public school enrollment figures indicate that of the forty million students in public schools, almost two million or approximately five percent are considered to be limited English proficient (Orum, 1990). The actual number of students whose first language is other than English is greater than the two million identified as limited English proficient (LEP) because that number only includes students who have not reached minimal levels of English proficiency. Many others are proficient enough in English to not be flagged for special services. Still others are never noticed or assessed for English proficiency because school personnel only have experiences with them in English and are not aware of their home language background. Spanish is the most frequently encountered non-English home language, but over thirty percent of students in federally funded bilingual/ESL programs are speakers of more than one hundred other languages (Staffing the Multilingually Impacted Schools of the 1990s, 1990).

In this article all students from non-English language background are considered language minority. Scores on English proficiency tests which determine LEP status set arbitrary lines of demarcation that do a disservice to children from non-English home backgrounds. A child's cultural and linguistic background must always be a consideration in planning instructional programs, and children's home backgrounds don't change because they reach a certain number on a test.

Traditionally, language minority students have been enrolled mostly in large urban school districts. For example, in the school year 1990-91 the nation's four largest school districts, New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, and Dade County, Florida combined had almost a quarter of the students designated as limited English proficient in the United States (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1991). This trend continues although language minority students are now beginning to be found in suburban and rural school districts. In states which traditionally have not been associated with language minority populations like Wisconsin and Minnesota, small towns and rural areas are being heavily affected by an influx of language minority students, particularly Hmong/Lao speakers. However, suburban and rural increases notwithstanding, the largest numbers of language minority students are still in big urban school districts. Even in districts where overall enrollment is declining, numbers of non-English speaking students are on the rise (Staffing the Multilingually Impacted Schools of the 1990s, 1990).

Urban school reform

Anyone involved in public education during the last decade knows that schooling has endured several phases of reform throughout the eighties. Because of an alarming decline in academic achievement of students, particularly in urban schools, the early eighties brought a reactive move toward mandating excellence. By setting higher achievement standards for students and teachers, reformers sought to improve schooling. Later, in hindsight, educators saw that these efforts at raising standards in many cases only made things worse for those who had the greatest need to benefit from reform, disadvantaged urban students (Boyer, 1984; Oakes, 1986).

After the move toward excellence came a second phase which emphasized the reorganization of schools and the teaching profession, school governance, and structure (Darling-Hammond, 1987; Fullan, 1990; Lieberman, 1984; Passow, 1991). Achievementhadn't improved by just setting goals and standards higher. Opinion makers decided that schools needed to reorganize the way they operated, to regroup, to restructure. In the latter half of the eighties the byword was restructuring, and reform efforts addressed how schools were configured or organized.

Through all of this some have questioned how any of the reform efforts directly affected the student populations in urban schools (Bacharach, 1990; Delgado-Gaitan & Trueba, 1991; Haywood-Metz, 1990; Oakes, 1986; Marcoulides & Heck, 1990; Medina, 1990; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988; Schorr, 1991). Students, including language minority students, in urban schools continued to suffer and remain at the bottom of the achievement heap. Could it be that the real issue for reform was not in raising standards or changing organization of schools but in recognizing and accepting the reality of the student populations? Raising general cries of alarm and mandating excellence without focusing on the variety of student populations in urban schools cannot address the diversity of need. Given the diversity that exists in urban school systems, it is unlikely that a blanket reform approach will connect with the variety of populations represented within urban systems.

The rhetoric in educational literature about meeting the needs of students could fill urban public schools from top to bottom. Yet, how much do urban teachers, administrators, and reformers really know about their students' needs? Is the real problem the failure to recognize what and who urban schools are trying to reform for? Could it be that educators have refused to admit an issue that they really don't know, much less deal with, who their students are? For example, where is the knowledge base on urban language minority students and how is it being used in reform in school systems with large numbers of language minority students?

In reviewing the literature on educational reform, the need to study just how change efforts directly address specific school populations becomes apparent. My previous study in which urban school district personnel described change in their systems also suggested this need. For example, a striking finding in an earlier study was that even in districts with significant minority student populations, ranging from fifty to eighty-seven percent, only two instances of change (reform) described by school district personnel were directly connected to their large minority populations. Those two examples were busing for integration and implementation of a bilingual program. Other examples of change such as site based management, new curricula, district reorganization, and dozens more were not described in relation to the minority student populations (Griego Jones, 1990).

These findings and reviews of educational literature suggest that current efforts at changing urban education may not be connecting with the reality of urban student populations. This article specifically addresses the question of how school reform efforts in urban districts with significant numbers of language minority students are directed toward that particular student population.

Language minority students in urban school reform

Although language minority populations are part of statistics given as proof of the need for reform, there is no hard evidence that their particular instructional needs, especially in language, have been a source of inspiration for reform solutions or a focus of attention in either the excellence or restructuring movements. In its 1987 report on progress of urban reform efforts, the Council of the Great City Schools stated that two top needs of urban schools were to create a stronger partnership between communities and schools and to train staff to respond to the needs of urban families (Challenges to Urban Education: Results In The Making, 1987, p. 39).

How have those top priorities been addressed in the case of language minority students? How can we judge whether student populations have been taken into account in the conceptualization, initiation, and implementation of reform initiatives? For language minority students it may be that districts have a tendency to take care of the "language problem" by initiating bilingual or ESL programs. All large American urban school districts have bilingual programs, English as a Second Language (ESL) programs, or both, for students from other language home backgrounds who are not yet proficient in English. Most of these programs have been in schools since the late sixties or early seventies (Ovando & Collier, 1985). At the time of the great reform movements of the eighties, bilingual programs were in place or were being implemented even as many large urban school districts were involved in initiating other major reform efforts. Some districts like New York (with 46,593) and Miami (with 54,096) which are currently at the forefront of moves toward restructuring are also districts with some of the largest numbers of language minority students.

There is little evidence to suggest that district personnel themselves think of bilingual programs as legitimate efforts at district reform aimed at improving schooling. Rather than being perceived as a way of delivering more appropriate and effective instruction for a segment of their student populations, they are often thought of as remedial programs to take care of a language deficiency.

Research study

The question of missed connections between urban school reform and urban student populations led to the initiation of a study funded by the University of Wisconsin System's Institute on Race and Ethnicity and reported in part here. The scope of this article deals only with language minority students, but the results are from a larger study which explored minority participation and perspectives in two efforts at urban school reform.

Case studies of two schools involved in different approaches to school district restructuring, one school in Chicago and one in Milwaukee, were conducted over a period of six months in the 1989-90 school year. These districts were chosen because they were just beginning major restructuring efforts which promised unprecedented opportunities for stronger community involvement in the governance of schools. Both case study schools had bilingual programs with approximately thirty percent of each school's students classified as LEP. The number of students from Spanish language home backgrounds was much larger (97% in Chicago and 45% in Milwaukee), but many students had reached a sufficient level of English proficiency as measured by the respective district tests to be in regular classes.

The primary source of data was on-site interviews with those involved in various aspects of reform – school personnel, parents and community, central and subdistrict administrators, and university, government, and business leaders. Data were also collected through on-site observations in schools and meetings of the various groups (teachers, local school councils, citywide coalitions of business, university, and city leaders) as well as analysis of minutes from those meetings. The goal was to get perspectives from those involved in all aspects of the restructuring effort -- from those in the classroom to those involved in drafting and implementing the reform plans on a broader scale.

Below are brief overviews of each school district to give a picture of the settings in which data were collected during the 1989-90 school year.

Chicago Reform literature is full of descriptions of the unprecedented reform experiment in Chicago by various research groups such as the Chicago Panel on Public Policy and Finance and The Center for School Improvement at the University of Chicago. This study does not attempt to review the history and scope of this district wide effort at restructuring. State legislation effective July 1, 1989 mandated sweeping changes in governance of the schools. A highlight of the legislation was the transfer of authority from central administration to local school councils by giving councils authority to hire principals, to approve the school's budget, and to influence and approve the School Improvement Plan. State legislation divided the Chicago Public Schools (CPS) with an enrollment of 400,000 students into eleven subdistrict areas (including one high school area which encompasses all high schools) with an office and district superintendent for each area.

Unquestionably the point of the Chicago reform legislation was to break up the very strong bureaucratic central administration and make the school the locus of control. Each school now has a Local School Council (LSC) composed of elected members (two teachers, two community representatives, six parents) and the principal. There is also a subdistrict Council made up of representatives from each LSC in the subdistrict area. Members of the city-wide Central School Board have always been, and still are, appointed by the Mayor. Consequently, the school system has historically been tied to city government.

The climate and publicity surrounding the Chicago educational reform effort were unprecedented. There was a sense within the broader education community (university, city, state, business) that this was a last chance attempt to save the school system. Proponents of the reform demonstrated a fervor akin to that of the Civil Rights movement of the sixties. The community at large was aware of the plight of the Chicago schools and the radical effort to restructure them, particularly in regard to the LSC and its authority to hire principals. The press publicized this aspect of the reform, especially in cases where council decisions resulted in conflict. The term "reform" was thrown about everywhere, and the assumption seemed to be that the schools and classrooms themselves were experiencing some type of reform.

Milwaukee: Milwaukee Public Schools (MPS) with an enrollment of 90,000 students has a history of being progressive and innovative in educational change and reform. For example, in the early eighties it received publicity for its RISE program and its urban/suburban integration plan. After having the same superintendent for fourteen years, in 1988 a new African American superintendent was brought in. Full of reform ideas, in his second year he subdivided the district into six service delivery areas with a community superintendent, an Instructional Support Team (IST), and a district office for each area. Each area also had a Community Advisory Council composed of members nominated by the community at large in each district and appointed by the Community Superintendent. Most schools have some type of local parent advisory council, but only certain MPS schools have been designated as Site Based Management Schools. These schools, which were in operation prior to last year's district reorganization receive extra monies and support to develop and maintain their site based councils.

In the school year 1989-90, there was widespread confusion and lack of understanding throughout the district about the role and authority of the various layers of the reorganized district administration. To some outside observers there was a climate of struggle and unrest between the old central office and the new community superintendents and staff as they adjusted to the restructuring and tried to define roles in the new system.

The Milwaukee school was chosen for the study because of its demographics (45% Hispanic, primarily Mexican American) and also because it is a designated Site Based Management school that was just beginning to implement a new K-3 ungraded primary structure in the 1989-90 school year. Unlike Chicago, Milwaukee does not have all of its schools involved in one major reform effort. Rather, there is a great variety of reform initiatives within the system. Individual schools have some freedom to try various innovations and to develop their own. In some cases, faculties vote to implement District initiatives that seem to hold promise for change in their schools. According to respondents, in the case of the ungraded primary concept, some school board members had decided that the idea was worth trying and essentially sent out a call for proposals to schools which might be interested in reorganizing themselves in an ungraded way. Eventually one school in each of the six subdistricts was chosen from among those interested. In one subdistrict, however, no school submitted a proposal, so the area superintendent chose a school and strongly encouraged the staff to involve themselves in this effort. The community superintendent included this school in the pilot project as much to have an Hispanic school as to have one from that particular subdistrict. Both principal and faculty were willing to try, but it was not their initiative.

School year 1989-90 was a planning year for those involved in the implementation of the ungraded primary. A central office administrator oversaw and coordinated all six schools involved in implementing the pilot ungraded primary project. Meetings between the central office coordinator and school staffs started well into the 1989-90 school year, and activity centered on planning and coordinating efforts for the 1990-91 school year. The case study building itself had not yet experienced the brunt of the activity except for the principal and four teachers who represented the school on the district ungraded planning committee. Parents and community were not involved in the initiation, planning, or implementation of the ungraded primary in any way.

Findings

Across the board, the one common theme which emerged in both districts and from all actors was the perception that restructuring efforts should, or could, benefit students in their schools through the focus on more local school control. It seems reasonable to expect that if local governance councils more closely reflect each school's student populations, the needs of the school's students would have a better chance of being understood and met. The following discussion examines this expectation voiced by all respondents by relating it to two other important findings, (a) differences between student/parent populations and teaching staff, and (b) the lack of uses of research on language minority students.

Difference between student populations and teaching staff

Teaching staff and student populations in both schools reflect national statistics on students and teachers. Teachers were predominantly white middle class (77% in the Chicago school and 72% in the Milwaukee school), and student populations were predominantly minority (97% in Chicago and 45% in Milwaukee). These case study schools then were representative of most urban schools in terms of ethnic composition of students and teachers.

The past twenty years had brought significant demographic change in the student populations in both schools. In both schools students had been predominantly Polish in the past, but over the last twenty years the neighborhood population had changed to become overwhelmingly Hispanic. Teachers' interviews in Chicago exhibited a shallow knowledge base about the current Hispanic students' lives outside of school. Comments from teachers which questioned why the present students couldn't be like other immigrants twenty years ago revealed a lack of knowledge about the economic and social conditions of the neighborhood. They seemed to assume that nothing in the economy or social structure of the neighborhood had changed in the last twenty years, only the color of the children. In fact, almost everything (including jobs, economy, life style) had changed in the last twenty years except teachers' understanding of their students.

Cultural and socio-economic differences manifest themselves in a variety of ways (Moll, 1990; Delgado-Gaitan & Trueba, 1991; Wong-Fillmore, 1990). Issues that are important for one group may not be for another. For example, bilingual education was one topic brought up at meetings of both parents and teaching staff in Chicago. Although neither group had clear ideas of what bilingual education encompassed, parents generally gave it more importance than staff did. Except for the bilingual teachers, bilingual education was viewed by staff as a compensatory program, there temporarily to take care of some deficiency in students. In Local School Council meetings on the other hand, many parents talked as if it were a way of recognizing and valuing them and their children.

Differing perspectives on grading policies and procedures in Chicago were another example of the gap between staff and parents. Teachers saw grading and retention as part of setting high standards, and parents saw grades as indications of failure or success on the part of staff in teaching their children. Related to this were the differing perspectives on students' limited proficiency in English. Where teachers saw the students' lack of English skill as the reason for students' failure or inability to keep up, parents blamed failure on the teachers' inability or unwillingness to accept students and teach them as they are.

Another Chicago example of differing perspectives resulted from the legislation that provided for parents and community to participate in developing School Improvement Plans. Teachers viewed writing school improvement plans or adopting new curricula as their domain while parents thought they had a right to have a say in what their children were taught. Whose values and beliefs would be reflected in the school improvement plan? The outcome of the territorial debate could determine the direction of the school. In the first year of implementation, a committee of teachers, with suggestions from colleagues, actually wrote the School Improvement Plan. The principal presented the plan to the LSC at a special meeting, and the council approved it unanimously. Council members saw the two hundred page document for the first time at that meeting and were impressed with the amount of time it must have taken teachers to write it. An examination of the plan itself showed little attention had been given to language minority students' instructional needs. Goal statements made general references to developing literacy in all students. No specific plans for students from non-English language backgrounds were made. It did not account for the distinction between teaching native English speakers and teaching English as a Second Language or for developing native language literacy skills for dominant Spanish speakers.

Differences again arose in deciding how to elect members to the teachers' Professional Personnel Advisory Committee (PPAC) in Chicago. Discussion about whether to have a special representative to the PPAC for the bilingual teachers surfaced in faculty meetings. One reason that bilingual representation was brought up at teacher meetings was that parents on the LSC and Bilingual Advisory Committee questioned why there were no bilingual teachers on the PPAC. Some faculty opposed singling that group of teachers out and giving them what was seen as double representation. Again, each group demonstrated a difference in awareness of issues, values, and orientation.

In Milwaukee the same bilingual teacher representation issue surfaced (although not from parents as they were not involved) but was handled in a different way. Bilingual representation in implementing the ungraded plan in the Milwaukee school was more in the control of the principal who was aware of the lack of bilingual program representation of the ungraded primary planning committee. Consequently, the principal added a second grade bilingual teacher to the school's planning team as an afterthought to satisfy a political need, not because of any serious thought to needs of language minority students.

The Milwaukee version of Site Based Management and parent involvement through the Community Advisory Committee at each Service Delivery Area was very different from Chicago's. In Chicago the study produced data on the relationship between parents and community and teaching staff which could be analyzed. In Milwaukee there was little data to analyze because the local community and parents were not involved in initiation or implementation of the ungraded primary schools through the Site Based Management Council. Nor did parent and community representatives appointed to the Service Delivery Area's Community Advisory Committee discuss these types of initiatives at their monthly meetings.

Only a few teachers and the principal at the local site were involved in initiation or implementation of the ungraded primary program, some in representing the school at district planning meetings, others in receiving feedback from those representatives. This limited participation of teachers and

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principal, however, is still important in the consideration of differences between faculty and students and parents because only staff viewpoints were heard in this effort at school reform. Since parents were not involved in this effort it is difficult to say what they might have thought or valued. Their lack of involvement, however, speaks volumes about their connection to this reform initiative. They were not even in the game.

The above examples of issues are specifically related to the language minority student populations of the case study schools and give an idea of how educators differed from community and parents in their views or topics of concern. All issues which surfaced in data analysis affected language minority students as they were part of the entire student bodies. That large numbers of students in both schools came from Spanish language home backgrounds should have been a major consideration in their schooling even though some had reached minimum levels of English proficiency.

Coming from different worlds, teachers and students and parents see education and each other in different terms, even though teachers and parents may have the same eventual goals for students.

Using research in reform for language minority students

A glaring void which became apparent in the data analysis was the almost total lack of use of research on effective schooling for language minority students. The research base encompassing first and second language acquisition, effective learning environments for language minority students, and the cultural context of learning was not used in these two cases of school reform. School districts in general do not use the knowledge base on minority students in their formulation of theory and policy related to school reform (Boyer, 1984; Griego Jones, 1990; Medina, 1990; Schorr, 1990). The thinking that is propelling school reform is still largely being done by white middle class educators whose mental images are filled with white middle class students, not racial and ethnic minority students (Oakes, 1986).

In the case studies reported here, this problem of inattention to the reality of student populations surfaced again. The extensive literature and increasingly sophisticated research in bilingual/bicultural education was not used in the two reform efforts reported in this article. With so many students from Spanish language backgrounds, it is logical that both schools would have used those demographics to give them direction for reform. It would have been logical for them to thoroughly research information on effective learning environments for

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Mexican American children. Instead, Milwaukee adopted an ungraded primary school program because board members thought it was a good idea. The point is not that an ungraded structure wouldn't be beneficial to language minority students, but that they and their needs were not the reason for adopting that initiative. As an afterthought the principal tried to make sure that the bilingual program was represented in the initiative, but clearly the fact that forty-five percent of the school's population was Hispanic did not mean anything in the adoption of that concept.

Chicago's local governance groups also let the demographics of their school count very little. There, the limited attention that was given to the language backgrounds of many of their students showed signs of degenerating into the old political debate about whether they should or shouldn't have bilingual education. Some bilingual staff members did ask for catalogs and ideas about where to find resources in Spanish, and the principal asked for information on multicultural education, but no effort was made to upgrade the knowledge base of bilingual and nonbilingual faculty, so the entire staff would better understand students from Spanish language backgrounds in spite of a student population that was 97% Mexican American.

Conclusions

Results from these two case studies highlight the lack of connection between urban school reform and urban student populations. These findings, merging with a wealth of research and educational reform literature, continue to suggest that efforts at improving schooling will not be successful unless there is a conscious, concerted effort to address specific student populations.

Reflection on findings from this study produced at least three priorities for refocusing urban school reform to meet the variety of student populations, in this case specifically language minority students. First, school systems with language minority students need to use the growing body of research on language minority students in a meaningful way in staff development related to reform. Extensive staff development is beginning to be recognized as vital to the success of any school reform, and districts are beginning to realize that no change can be expected without upgrading the knowledge base of teachers and self-examination of attitudes, beliefs, and expectations toward students (Fullan, 1990). However, staff development needs to be directed toward specific student populations and not toward the latest educational fads or students in general. The diversity of schools and needs of specific student populations get lost if reform is cast in general terms. Teachers need to become experts at dealing with specific populations within their buildings. Unless there is a clear and studied understanding of how reform strategies connect to student populations there is only a hit and miss chance of succeeding in educating every student.

Second, along with the need to use existing research, is a need for colleges, universities, and private foundations to contribute to the growing knowledge base on urban minority student populations, including language minority populations, by aggressively conducting and rewarding research on the diversity of urban student populations. More research on needs, values, perceptions, and effective learning environments for students must catch up with the exhaustive data base on students' dismal lack of achievement.

A third important priority for refocusing urban school reform is in the area of policy and decision making. With the trend toward more local governance, how are minority populations involved in that governance and decision making about reform in their schools? How are minority populations to ensure that they are not left out of developments in reshaping their schools? Conscious attention must be given to research on patterns of minority involvement in decision making and influencing policy.

The move toward power and decision making authority at the local school site makes the question of how to connect current teaching staff with their students and communities even more urgent. The closer governance is to the local school community, the more closely it will reflect the needs and wants of the school, parents, and community. At the same time, however, the closer the governance is to the local school community, the stronger and sharper the differences may be between the teaching staff and the local community. The reform thrust toward local governance highlights the need for accelerating staff development on culturally diverse student populations and helping to establish connections among teachers and students and parents. It also offers another reason to renew efforts to recruit young people from language minority backgrounds into teaching.

These priorities for refocusing reform assume that educators are ready to accept the various student populations and gear efforts to fit the diversity of students found in urban public schools. As we enter a new era of school reform in the 1990s, timing and a renewed awareness and acceptance of the diversity and uniqueness of urban student populations could give public education another opportunity to better connect urban school reform with those it is supposed to serve.

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WASHINGTON COMMENTARY

Goals 2000 Is Not More of the Same

BY ANNE C. LEWIS

AS PART of the media coverage of the passage of the Goals 2000 legislation, National Public Radio visited a large urban high school to find out what teachers thought about the idea of enacting higher standards for students. Judging by their comments, they were not very impressed. One thought that his state's standards seemed like "more of the same thing." Another said that the money would be better spent on remedial education.

Each of these responses illustrates a different reason why we need the Goals 2000 legislation. We can hope that it will prevent us from simply doing "more of the same" in education reform, and we can hope that it will lead to more enlightened ways of helping students become better learners than those provided by traditional remedial education.

There are many pieces to this intriguing statute. For one thing, it formalizes the development of national standards and new assessment systems. Public policy has been moving gradually in that direction for several years, but the new law allows researchers and policy makers to get on with these tasks in a more systematic way. Many people have been working on the fringes to develop the technical guidance that will shape several different types of standards, including content standards, performance standards, and opportunity-to-learn standards. These seem like a mouthful, but they will soon become part of the vocabulary of every educator.

No procedure or law will prevent mistakes from being made as the work on standards plays out, but at least the best knowledge and research available will be applied to the development and implementation of standards of all forms. On a voluntary basis, of course, national panels will certify each state's content standards and student performance standards, as long as they are as rigorous as the nationally certified standards. Eventually, parents and the general public will be able to look at what is being taught and what performance is considered "good enough" in their schools in light of nationally certified standards. The primary hook to entice states to take such steps is money: states with acceptable improvement plans (including their plans to develop standards and assessments) will qualify to dip into a federal pot of education reform money. Five billion dollars has been authorized for this purpose over the next five years.

Simply doing "more of the same" should not be possible under Goals 2000. Through several of its provisions, the new law establishes a number of "firsts" in national policy. The one that is mentioned least often but could prove most significant is the formal recognition that American education has much to learn from the education systems and standards in use in other countries. Under the legislation, the development of all types of standards must include research on the content and classroom practices in nations with rigorous standards.

Another first is the establishment of standards for students who are not bound for college. A skills standards board created by the legislation will develop entry-level standards for clusters of occupations; these standards are to be closely aligned with academic standards. Such skills standards have the potential to revolutionize vocational education and that vast area known as comprehensive education, which has been neither academic nor vocational.

The legislation also acknowledges a subtle change in governance. State policies, through state improvement plans, are now to be more directly focused on the schools. While this new state/school link is being forged in the context of how schools are currently governed, it could ultimately lead to changed relationships.

HOWEVER, the most contentious and ultimately the most far-reaching provision in the Goals 2000 legislation deals with opportunity-to-learn standards. The National Governors' Association (NGA), which has been trying to develop sane policies on this issue for several years, defines "opportunity to learn" as "the factors, elements, or conditions of teaching and learning that are necessary for all students to have a fair opportunity to achieve high performance standards."

Proponents of such standards argue that it is unfair to hold students to higher standards if they have not been given the opportunity to meet those standards. Opponents fear that opportunity-to-learn standards will lead to a "checklist" of inputs that could result in more regulation and have little impact on inequities. In the debate on Capitol Hill there was an additional undercurrent: the lingering doubts on the part of many members of Congress as to whether state and local officials are truly committed to dealing with inequities. Many members wanted the development of specific opportunity-to-learn standards to be required before content and performance standards could be used for high-stakes purposes.

The compromise on opportunity-to-learn standards that was finally reached in Congress provides for the development of national opportunity-to-learn standards. The new council that will certify all standards will also certify "exemplary, voluntary national opportunity-to-learn standards that will establish a basis for providing all students a fair opportunity to achieve the knowledge and skills set out in the voluntary national

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standards certified by the Council." One loses count of how many times the word *voluntary* appears in this legislation. And while it's true that there is no requirement that states present opportunity-to-learn standards in order to qualify for funding, the handwriting is on the wall.

These opportunity-to-learn standards, as Congress now sees them, have entered the local, state, and national debate. The Goals 2000 legislation says that, in certifying such standards, specific elements shall be addressed, including:

- the quality and availability to all students of curricula, instructional materials, and technologies, including distance learning;
- the capability of teachers to provide high-quality instruction to meet the diverse learning needs of all students in each content area;
- the extent to which teachers, principals, and administrators have ready and continuing access to professional development, including the best knowledge about teaching, learning, and school improvement;
- the extent to which curriculum, instructional practices, and assessments are aligned with voluntary national content standards;
- the extent to which school facilities provide a safe and secure environment for learning and instruction and provide the requisite libraries, laboratories, and other resources necessary to provide students an opportunity to learn; and
- the extent to which schools use policies, curricula, and instructional practices that ensure nondiscrimination on the basis of gender.

State policy makers have already found it difficult enough to face equity goals. Opportunity-to-learn standards will be an even more difficult challenge, according to Susan Traiman, director of education policy research for the NGA, because they shift the focus "from equal access to services to equal opportunity to receive quality instruction." The issue now is not whether services are available but whether those services are actually delivered to all children.

Some Washington lobbyists don't believe that the Goals 2000 legislation means much. "It's more of what we're doing already," they argue. But those lobbyists who argued on Capitol Hill for less restriction on states believe the opportunity-to-learn standards can be used by state leaders to improve education substantially.

Ultimately, however, these opportunity-to-learn standards present new tools for accountability. They can become arguments for closing schools that are not providing opportunities for students to learn. And although federal legislation says that the standards cannot be used in litigation, there is no doubt that, if schools, districts, and states continually fail to provide the types of opportunities to be certified nationally, civil rights advocates will go to court to argue against "more of the same."

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLING FOR LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS: THE TEACHER

Has implications for teachers of all linguistic minority students.

The Study

Attributes of "effective" schools, teachers and classroom environment specific to the education of Hispanic language minority students has received over three years of investigatory attention in projects funded by the California Policy Seminar and the Organization for Economic Collaboration and Development, Paris, France. With a focus on academic teaching and learning, this research provides an in-depth investigation of schools which serve linguistic minority Hispanic students effectively.

More specifically, activities and perceptions of students, teachers, administrators and parents were sampled over several years. This data addressed:

- Instructional processes in literacy and math
- Student performance on standardized language, cognitive and meta-cognitive measures
- Academic achievement
- Teacher attitudes
- Principal attitudes
- Parental attitudes

The Findings

The present work provides some preliminary conclusions regarding the teacher in these "effective" classrooms. These attributes have been divided into four distinct but interlocking domains:

(1) **Knowledge**
These "effective teachers were experienced in working specifically with these students (the average number of years of experience was 6.2). They were able to articulate what they were doing in their classrooms and also substantiate their effects. All were highly competent in the content areas for which they were responsible

(2) **Skills**
These "effective" teachers were competent communicators with their students, their teaching colleagues, their administrators and their students' parents. Early grade teachers were proficient Spanish/English bilinguals. All teachers were biliterate. In their classrooms, these teachers adopted the role of "collaborator", serving more as a coordinator of learning than a dispenser of knowledge. They skillfully implemented collaborative teaching strategies in heterogeneous groups.

(3) **Dispositions**
These "effective" teachers were both highly confident in their ability and self-critical. They reported being "paradigm-flexible", having at different points of their careers adopted distinct beliefs about their teaching role, and, changed those beliefs several times. But, they never considered themselves eclectic. They had achieved a high degree of autonomy and a high degree of respect from teaching colleagues, administrators and parents. They were creative, committed and hardworking; never satisfied that they were doing enough. They looked to teaching colleagues for support and themselves organized and substained support networks.

(4) **Affect**
These "effective" teachers were advocates for their students, had high expectations for each student and displayed a pride in student's accomplishments. They were reassuring but demanding, and rejected any notion that their students were disadvantaged. In general, their classrooms were managed in the style of the family--they "adopted" these students as if they were children of their own. They were also "adopted" by the students' families.

Details of this comprehensive study are available from Dr. Eugene E. Garcia, Dean, Social Science Division, Kerr Hall, University of California, Santa Cruz, CA 95064.

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THE EDUCATION OF LINGUISTICALLY AND CULTURALLY DIVERSE STUDENTS: EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES

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THE EDUCATION OF LINGUISTICALLY AND CULTURALLY DIVERSE STUDENTS: EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES

OVERVIEW

Linguistically and culturally diverse students find themselves in a vulnerable situation on entering U.S. schools. They can achieve academic success, however, when provided with appropriate instruction tailored to meet their specific needs. Recent research has documented effective instructional practices used with students from homes and communities where English is not the primary language of communication. These descriptive studies identified specific schools and classrooms whose language minority students were particularly successful academically. Studies included examination of preschool, elementary, and high school classrooms, and concentrated largely on Latino students.

A number of common attributes were identified in the instructional organization of the classrooms studied:

- functional communication between teacher and students and among fellow students was emphasized;
- the instruction of basic skills and academic content was consistently organized around thematic units;
- instruction was organized in such a way that students were required to interact with each other utilizing collaborative learning techniques;
- students progressed systematically from writing in the native language to writing in English, making the transition without any pressure from the teacher to do so;
- teachers were highly committed to the educational success of their students and served as student advocates;
- principals were highly supportive of their instructional staff and supported teacher autonomy while maintaining an awareness of the need to conform to district policies on curriculum and academic accountability;
- both Anglo and non-Anglo parents were involved in the formal parent support activities of the schools and expressed a high level of satisfaction with and appreciation for their children's educational experience in these schools.

CONCLUSIONS

The research described above addressed some significant practice questions about effective academic environments for linguistically and culturally diverse students:

(1) *Did native language instruction play a role?*

The schools in these studies considered native language instruction key in the early grades (K-3).

(2) *Was there one best curriculum?*

No common curriculum was identified in these studies. However, a well-trained instructional staff implementing an integrated student-centered curriculum, with literacy pervasive in all aspects of instruction, was consistently observed across grade levels. Basals were utilized sparingly and usually as resource material.

(3) *What instructional strategies were effective?*

Teachers consistently organized instruction so as to insure heterogeneous small-group collaborative academic activities requiring a high degree of student-to-student interaction. Individual instructional activity was limited, as was individual competition as a classroom motivational ingredient.

(4) *Who were the key players in this effective schooling drama?*

School administrators and parents played important roles, but teachers were the key players. They gained the confidence of their peers and supervisors. They worked to organize instruction, create new instructional environments, assess instructional effectiveness, and advocate for their students. They were proud of their students—academically reassuring but consistently demanding. They rejected any notion of academic, linguistic, cultural, or intellectual inferiority in their students.

These features of effective classrooms for linguistically and culturally diverse students contribute, above all, to the establishment of an interactive, student-centered learning context. In other words, effective instructional staff recognize that academic learning has its roots in processes of social interaction. This type of instruction provides abundant and diverse opportunities for speaking, listening, reading, and writing along with native language scaffolding to help guide students through the learning process. A focus on social interaction encourages students to take risks, construct meaning, and seek reinterpretations of knowledge within compatible social contexts. Within this knowledge-driven curriculum, skills are tools for acquiring knowledge, not a fundamental target of teaching events (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Garcia, 1988).

Research Reports

RR 1	*Sociological Foundations Supporting the Study of Cultural Diversity* (1991) Hugh Mehan
RR 2	*The Instructional Conversation: Teaching and Learning in Social Activity* (1991) Roland G. Tharp & Ronald Gallimore
RR 3	*Appropriating Scientific Discourse: Findings from Language Minority Classrooms* (1992) Ann S. Rosebery, Beth Warren & Faith R. Conant
RR 4	*Untracking and College Enrollment* (1992) Hugh Mehan, Amanda Datnow, Elizabeth Bratton, Claudia Tellez, Diane Friedlaender & Thuy Ngo

Educational Practice Reports

EPR 1	*The Education of Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students: Effective Instructional Practices* (1991) → Eugene E. Garcia ←
EPR 2	*Instructional Conversations and Their Classroom Application* (1991) Claude Goldenberg
EPR 3	*Language Minority Education in the United States: Implications of the Ramirez Report* (1992) Courtney B. Cazden
EPR 4	*Rating Instructional Conversations: A Guide* (1992) Robert Rueda, Claude Goldenberg & Ronald Gallimore
EPR5	*Myths and Misconceptions about Second Language Learning: What Every Teacher Needs to Unlearn (1992)* Barry McLaughlin

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Sociocultural processes in academic, cognitive, and language development

reported by Roger E. W-B Olsen and Beti Leone

based on a Plenary Address at TESOL '94 by Virginia P. Collier

Virginia Collier presented some of her latest research at a standing room only Plenary Session at TESOL '94 in Baltimore. Collier continues to explore the length of time necessary for ESL students to compete equitably with native-English-speaking students. (It still takes 5 or 6 years or longer, even with "good" programs.) She is also exploring the relative effectiveness of different types of programs with and without primary language (L-1) instruction *ESL-only, early-exit bilingual, late-exit bilingual*, and *two-way bilingual* programs, and she presented a prism-type model showing the interrelationships among academic, cognitive, and language domains, and the influence of social and cultural processes. She also included data on two types of early-exit bilingual programs: those using traditional ESL methods and those using ESL taught through the content areas.

How do students do in high school?

Collier's data are based on a series of cross-sectional studies, completed with her co-researcher Wayne Thomas, of students acquiring English to examine their academic success at the secondary level after receiving ESL and/or bilingual education instruction. These studies ask "after specified instruction over several years, how does the achievement of students acquiring English compare with native speakers?" For example, how do students acquiring English do in high school after they have received ESL or different types of bilingual education for several years during elementary or middle school? Collier and Thomas examined student records from five urban school districts in four states in the US. In any given year, each of these school districts has from 5,000 to 25,000 language minority students. More than 100 primary languages are represented in the study.

Student performance was analyzed according to type of ESL or bilingual program: ESL-only; early-exit bilingual with ESL taught through content (students receive some L-1 instruction and support for up to 2 years, after which they receive English only instruction); early-exit bilingual with traditional ESL; late-exit bilingual (students receive academic subject matter instruction in L-1 for 5 to 6 years); and two-way bilingual, with English speakers and language minority students receiving academic subject matter through two languages. Mean normal curve equivalents (NCEs), were calculated for each group at each grade using test scores from nationally standardized achievement tests, such as the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills or the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, as well as state performance assessment measures.

How long does it take?

Collier's and Thomas's analyses support several major claims. One claim is that it takes 5 to 7 years for the most advantaged students to reach the 50th NCE; that is, 5 to 7 years are necessary on the average for students in the most effective types of programs to compete on an equal footing with native-English-speaking students in English-only classrooms. Students who reach the 50th NCE as a group have at least 2 to 3 years of L1 schooling in the home or host country. Students with no schooling in L1 on the average take 7 to 10 years or more. This claim is consistent with earlier reports (Collier, 1987, 1989, and 1992; Collier & Thomas, 1989; Cummins, 1981).

Slight short-term advantages with "ESL-only"

Another claim is that *ESL-only* results in slight initial advantages (in academic performance in English) over all programs that provide L1 instruction (early-exit bilingual, late-exit bilingual, and two-way bilingual), but these initial advantages are short lived and the ESL-only

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Sociocultural processes continued from page 1

students as a group do not reach the 50th NCE. However, the late-exit bilingual and two-way bilingual groups reach the 50th NCE somewhere between the fifth and seventh year and maintain this level or above throughout their secondary schooling, while the ESL-only group loses ground relative to the national norm group, falling to about the 30th NCE as they reach the upper grades.

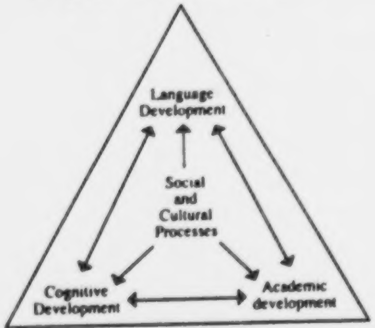
Long-term advantages with greatest amount of L1 instruction

Another important claim is that students with the greatest amount of academic and cognitive development in L1 demonstrate the greatest academic gains in English after the sixth year and perform significantly above the national average in late-exit bilingual programs, with some as high as the 65th to 70th NCE in two-way bilingual programs. That is, students in strong L1 development programs achieve, on the average, above the national norm set for English-only students. On the average, two-way bilingual students achieve higher than late-exit bilingual students. Early-exit bilingual students achieve higher than ESL-only, but neither early-exit bilingual nor ESL-only students reach the 40th NCE on the average; that is, students with 0 to 2 years of L1 instruction may never on the average reach the national norm. These data confirm Ramirez (1992) who reported relative achievement levels of three types of programs (ESL-only, early-exit bilingual, and late-exit bilingual) in a 6-year study of about 6,000 students. However, Collier's and Thomas's data include two-way bilingual programs and their studies examine student performance in grades K–12.

Sociocultural processes involved in students' development

Collier presented a model in the form of a prism to emphasize the interrelationships among academic, cognitive, and language development, suggesting that growth in all three areas is necessary for English language proficiency and academic achievement. She says that (a) all three domains need to be viewed as developmental, and (b) development in one domain may depend on development in the other two domains. A program that emphasizes only one domain may inadvertently ignore or overlook the other two to the detriment of the individual's overall growth and future success. In other words, a program that emphasizes English only may neglect academic and cognitive development, which are equally important for future academic success and functioning in English.

Language Acquisition for School



1994 by Virginia P Collier

The prism model depicts the sociocultural individual surrounded by many types of developmentally important influences, and the kinds of influences that seem particularly important for schooling success are the social and cultural processes that form the child as a member of a particular family and community. These processes—made up of the everyday ways of thinking, doing things, family ways, and community norms of speaking and interpreting reality—affect the three domains of development: the academic, cognitive, and language domains. And so, just as nature gives us countless varieties of prisms with various shapes and numbers of sides, we find our individual students to be unique—each bringing different learning styles, knowledge, and sociocultural experiences to our classrooms.

Parent-child L1 communication important

Collier's prism tells us how it is possible to provide too much L2 instruction: if it interferes with academic and/or cognitive development. For example, if parents with limited English proficiency strive to communicate with their children entirely in English at home, they may be withholding opportunities for important cognitive development that they could easily provide in L1. Parents can more effectively assist their children in their cognitive development if they communicate with them in their strongest language, the native language. Children's cognition needs to be developed in the first language without interruption, for long-term cognitive and academic success in L2.

Home, community, school, and societal factors

Collier's prism is also interesting because it invites us to explore bridges between classroom-based learning experiences and the learner's sociocultural systems and sociocultural realities. The heart of the figure are the social and cultural processes that have formed the student into who he or she is and therefore must serve as the basis for his or her cognitive, academic, and language development. These social and cultural processes are the everyday fabric of the student's life. They include but are not limited to the following examples:

1) past experiences (e.g., amount of past schooling or nonschool life events such as escape from war),
2) the social context in school (such as a cooperative learning environment, positive relations between majority and minority students, and affirmation of home languages and cultures), and
3) the societal context (such as majority–minority group relations in a given community or region).

A complete report of Collier's and Thomas's study including summary statistics will be presented to the US Department of Education in Fall 1994.

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Immigration Laws Are Education Laws Too

Today, when more newcomers are brought in than an already-frail education system can handle, we are certainly mismanaging immigration, Mr. Stewart claims.

BY DAVID STEWART

Illustration by Brenda Grannan

WHAT SINGLE piece of national legislation has had the most effect on American institutions and agencies of education in the past several decades? Not, in my view, any of the laws with "education" in their titles. Rather, this distinction belongs to the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1965, which did not emanate from either of the education committees of Congress and which was enacted with virtually no consideration of its possible implications for the education of immigrants and their native-born counterparts. The Immigration Act affects education because it has led to a massive increase in enrollment by immigrant students, whose presence is a major spur for school restructuring and curricular reform.

The 1965 immigration law represented a marked shift in policy. It did away with the essentially racist national-origins system of the McCarran-Walter Immigration Act, replacing it with selection criteria focusing on family reunification and desired occupational skills. The numbers of immigrants allowed to enter were substantially increased, and the nation regained its conscience as immigrants from the Eastern Hemisphere were for the first time allowed to enter the United States without regard to national or racial origin.

The effects of the 1965 legislation were

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as dramatic as they were unexpected. The proportion of immigrants coming from Europe declined precipitously. At the same time, huge increases were recorded in immigration from Asia and also from Latin America, with the result that today more than 80% of all immigration to the U.S. comes from these two areas.

For many of the nation's schools, these changing immigration patterns have meant not only an increase in the size of their student bodies but also a marked shift in their demographic composition. And the newly diverse student bodies require schools to make major adjustments to accommodate them.

As immigrants enroll, far more students will need special or altered programs and services if they are to be served adequately. Bilingual education and English as a second language (ESL) programs are at the forefront of these accommodations. So are curricular changes that take a multicultural student body into account. But specialized assessment and placement centers, systems to assess language proficiency, "newcomer schools" that serve immigrant students exclusively, year-round school calendars, cultural sensitivity programs, parent outreach programs, and partnerships with community agencies and organizations are also required. And this list does not even mention the need for new physical facilities and equipment.

Generally, the need for these services and facilities is most acute in urban school districts that are least likely to have the resources to provide them. When schools do not respond to these needs, watered-down or inferior programs and overcrowding are the inevitable results. Some academic programs, as well as extracurricular activities and after-school services, may even be dropped altogether. This situation introduces a tension-building competition for resources between incoming immigrants and low-income Americans – most often African Americans and native-born Hispanics.

In a recent series of interviews about immigrant education with school administrators and teachers, I asked this question: Do you believe that the need to provide specialized services to immigrant students has led to diminished resources and services to native-born students? In nearly every instance the answer to this question (delivered uneasily and never for attribution) was yes.

Rapid social change always brings tensions, and American schools are currently experiencing more than their share of them. An unwholesome separatism is the norm in many schools as the various ethnic groups sort themselves out and build walls that they perceive as necessary for their emotional or even physical protection. In many schools, this tension spills over into outright conflict. Anti-immigrant hate crimes are on the rise. A number of studies have shown that immigrant children almost universally report experiences of violence, intimidation, or harassment. Native-born children also express comparable fear and discomfort, with negative comments about immigrants coming as much from African American and Hispanic students as from whites.

With the heavy inflow of immigrants to many American cities and increasingly to suburbs as well, many school systems are experiencing a "tipping" phenomenon that is reminiscent of the civil rights era. Today it is not whites fleeing from blacks, but English-speaking parents who move out of the neighborhood or withdraw their children from schools in which larger and larger numbers of students have limited English skills. These parents perceive that teachers have less time to spend with native children in the face of heavier demands from students with limited English proficiency; they are also uncomfortable with rising levels of tension and violence stemming in part from ethnic conflicts.

It is not only programs for children that are affected by the nation's immigration laws. Adult literacy programs are also being severely strained as demand from immigrant adults needing English-language training outpaces comparable (and much less assertive) demand from native-born clients. With limited funds and with long waiting lists of eager immigrants, directors of literacy programs have no incentive to develop (or even to continue) outreach programs aimed at often hard-to-reach native-born adults.

These difficulties are approaching crisis proportions in many localities. Indeed, they amount to "social dynamite," to borrow a phrase used by James Bryant Conant in reference to the problems of ill-educated urban youth just before the civil rights explosions of the 1960s. In an era when many more immigrants are on the way, we ignore this situation at our peril. During the 1990s the nation expects a historic high of about one million immigrants per year when both legal and illegal immigration are totaled.

IN THE GREAT sweep of American history, immigration has proved to be good for the country. The diversity that immigrants bring is an asset in educational settings. It may bring problems, but it is not in itself a problem. Today, however, when more newcomers are brought in than an already-frail education system can handle, we are certainly mismanaging immigration. Our schools are being overwhelmed.

How did we get into this mess, and what needs to be done about it? The root of the problem lies in Congress' enacting immigration laws that it does not adequately finance. Huge increases in immigration are authorized. Yet the staggering initial costs required to educate the newcomers are for the most part passed along by the federal government to others – generally to that weakest of contemporary institutions, the urban school.

One reason for this dysfunction has been the failure of the education subcommittees in the House and Senate to involve themselves in the development of immigration legislation. Assertive action by the chairs of the education subcommittees is surely needed to correct this oversight. Participation by the education subcommittees could be arranged with particular ease in the Senate, where Sen. Edward Kennedy (D-Mass.) serves as chairman of both the Judiciary Committee's Subcommittee on Immigration and Refugee Affairs and the Labor and Human Resources Committee.

To solve the basic problems, Congress will either have to provide adequate up-front funding to support the education expenditures that its immigration laws necessitate, or it will have to alter those immigration laws. The Emergency Immigrant Education Act, under which federal funds are channeled to school districts heavily affected by immigration, is pathetically underfunded (an average of $43 per immigrant student and $213 per refugee student per year). Given present levels of immigration, its appropriations should be very substantially increased. Sensitive adjustments in immigration law

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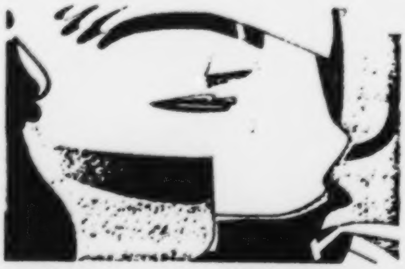


should also receive careful attention.

A moratorium on immigration, as some propose, is not the answer. Immigration has been and continues to be a source of intellectual, social, and cultural nourishment for America. The nation should also remain a haven for genuine political refugees, no matter how needy. But immigration in all its complex dimensions does need good management.

Given the sensitivities involved, Congress has long been loath to take up immigration issues until the public mood festers and outside pressure is applied. Using that gauge, the time to act is now, and the necessary pressure ought to be generated. A reduced level of immigration would be desirable. One relatively practical option would be a suspension of the 40% increase that was unwisely authorized in the 1990 amendments to a generous immigration law that already allowed high levels. More aggressive (though humane) action to control the increasing inflow of illegal immigrants would also be appropriate. Illegal immigrants, who are generally drawn from the least advantaged groups in their home countries, often arrive with disproportionately high levels of educational need. Many of them, both adults and children, have never been enrolled in school in their home nations. The costs of serving them are high – exceeded only by the social and moral costs of *not* serving a segment of the population that must become a functioning part of our democracy.

Finally, we do need to act immediately for another reason – that of staving off the present distressing backlash against immigrants. (Some 68% of the U.S. population currently believe that immigration is "bad" for the country, according to a recent Harris poll.) In the long run, a more rational immigration plan would engender a greater degree of public acceptance of and welcome for newcomers to American shores. K

Illustration by Brenda Grannan

Who Are Our Current and Future Students?

Roseann Dueñas Gonzalez

According to the U.S. Census Bureau, between 1980 and 1990, the total population grew by 10 percent.

- Whites experienced the lowest growth rate, of just 6 percent;
- the Asian and Pacific Islander population showed the greatest increase during the decade, of 108 percent;
- Hispanics increased their numbers by 53 percent;
- Native Americans had a 38 percent population growth rate; and, the African American population grew by about 13 percent.

These are some of the statistics presented to participants in the "Reclaiming the Dream" conference, held last August in Washington, D.C. Roseann Dueñas Gonzalez, professor of English and director of the Writing Skills Improvement Program at the University of Arizona, used population and immigration statistics to illustrate the nature of the multicultural classroom, now and in the future.

Low-Incidence Languages on the Rise

In the ten years between the 1980 and 1990 censuses, the number of Non-English Home Language Speakers (NEHLS) showed a 38 percent increase, from 23 to 31 million people. Over a third of them have what they describe as great difficulty with the English language.

While Spanish remains the most widely spoken language other than English in the United States, many other languages saw explosive growth between 1980 and 1990—Korean, a 127 percent increase; Vietnamese, a 149 percent increase; Arabic, a 57 percent increase. "Languages that we never had in the United States, never even thought about, are suddenly becoming significant languages in our country," Gonzalez observed.

What this means for the schools is that the number of students identified as Limited English Proficient (LEP) is increasing. In one year, between 1990 and 1991, the number of LEP students nationwide increased by 14 percent. Only seven states in the United States, Gonzalez said, experienced a decline in the number of LEP students enrolled. Tennessee had the greatest increase, 80 percent, from 2,033 to 3,660 LEP students. Overall, the number of LEP students in the United States grew, in one year, from 1,981,112 to 2,263,682.

Gonzalez pointed out that LEP numbers probably are lower than they could be, for two reasons. First, the statistics capture only those LEP students who have been identified by state agencies. In addition, the very measure of LEP—how much *social* English students have—fails to address the needs of students who may have sufficient social English skills but limited academic proficiency.

Other factors besides language barriers combine to make academic achievement difficult for many of America's children. Gonzalez said that between 1980 and 1990, the two-parent family achieved minority status in this country in some groups. In the African American population, for example, the number of single-parent families surpassed that of two-parent families in the decade before the last census. Latino populations have seen a 50 percent increase in single-parent families, Asian Americans have seen a 95 percent increase, and Native Americans, a 48 percent increase. "It's one of the things we know that other cultures are learning from mainstream American culture," Gonzalez said. "One of the problems in the coming together of cultures [is the] taking on of some of those unfortunate negative elements."

Fifty percent of single-parent families live in poverty. In no state does that figure dip below 30 percent. Hispanic children suffered the highest increase in poverty between 1980 and 1990, but all groups experienced increases in the number of children living in poverty.

How does all this adversity affect linguistically and culturally diverse students? Typically, Gonzalez said, it is reflected in high dropout rates. In fact, states with the highest numbers of LEP students have higher than average dropout rates. Hispanics are three times as likely to drop out of school as non-Hispanic peers; African American students are twice as likely to drop out as Anglo students, who have about an 11 percent dropout rate.

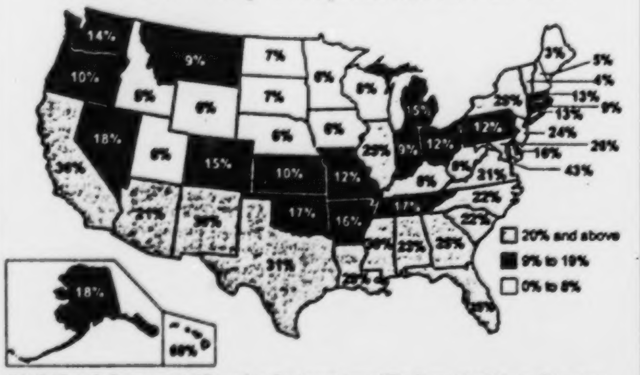
The number one reason students gave for dropping out of school between eighth and tenth grades was that they did not like school. What, Gonzalez asked, does that really mean?

"What don't you like usually? That which you fear? That which you don't feel comfortable in? That which you don't feel a part of? That which you never made any kind of bond with?" Gonzalez went on to cite factors that dropouts said might lure them back to school. Number one among 53 percent of Hispanic and 62 percent of African American dropouts was "If it would improve my reading skills."

"How does this become a conditional sentence—'I would return to school *if . . . ?*' " Gonzalez asked incredulously. "Isn't school the place you go to learn to read? What does this tell you? Whatever is going on in that school hasn't got anything to do with making these students feel that they can actually improve their literacy."

Other responses included "If it would improve my math skills"; "If I felt I could graduate"; "If I could take more job-related courses"; "If I felt sure I could get tutoring help to be better in school." These, Gonzalez said, should be the foundation of what is done in the schools, "answering these responses that students had about our schools, about never being able to enter the culture, never feeling comfortable in the culture, and not even being sure that they could learn anything in that setting."

Proportion of College Students Who Are Minority-Group Members, Fall 1991



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education. Graph courtesy of *The Chronicle of Higher Education*.

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FOCUS ON: *Administrators*

Districtwide Approach Enables Border System To Defy Low Expectations for L.E.P. Students

Administrators in the Calexico, Calif., district show an unusually strong commitment to educating limited-English-proficient students. "The goal," says Superintendent Roberto Moreno, "has been to give access to all students, regardless of their background."

By Peter Schmidt

CALEXICO, CALIF.—As its name suggests, this town on the nation's southern border seems as much a part of Mexico as a part of California. The border crossing bustles like any big-city intersection as thousands of Mexicans walk or drive here each day to work, to shop, and, sometimes, to stay.

The Mexican flavor of Calexico's streets permeates its schools as well. Of the district's 6,700 students, 98 percent are Hispanic and 80 percent are limited-English-proficient. More than 40 percent of the students in its high school were born in Mexico.

And given the fact that more than half of its students come from low-income backgrounds that qualify them for federal lunch subsidies, Calexico's demographics make it a classic example of the kind of district most would expect to be plagued by low student achievement and high dropout rates.

But by taking an unusual, districtwide approach to educating limited-English-proficient Hispanic children, the Calexico Unified School District appears to be defying these low expectations.

The annual dropout rate here has hovered around 14 percent, well below the 29 percent statewide average for Hispanic students, and it usually is below that of any other predominantly Hispanic district in the state. Although 98 percent of its kindergarten students enter school knowing little or no English, about one-fifth of its students go on to four-year colleges, and another three-fifths enroll in community college.

Administrators here say the district is succeeding in educating Hispanic L.E.P. students because it does not rely on any one program to get the job done, but instead has focused the attention of its entire school system on the education of L.E.P. students, bringing almost every teacher on board.

"We don't even think that much in terms of bilingual education anymore," Superintendent Roberto Moreno says. "We just have the basic programs, and in some of the basic programs, Spanish is the vehicle for instruction."

Observers also say that administrators here show an unusual degree of commitment to educating L.E.P. students.

As a result of the district's success, bilingual-education advocates elsewhere have been urging other school systems with large language-minority populations to use Calexico as a model for dealing with L.E.P. students on a systemwide basis. To help fund efforts to duplicate Calexico's approach, they also have been lobbying Congress to establish districtwide and even statewide bilingual-education grants.

"With the changing demographics, bilingual education no longer can be appropriately viewed as an ad hoc or supplemental program," argues James J. Lyons, the executive director of the National Association for Bilingual Education.

Bilingual education, Mr. Lyons says, "has to be incorporated in the basic education program—at least where there are large numbers or high proportions of language-minority students."

'Parallel Curricula'

Largely because of its location near the borders of Mexico and Arizona, the Calexico district has always been heavily Hispanic. Mexicali, a Mexican city of 700,000 just across the border, historically has provided many of the laborers who come over and work the crops here in the sunny, irrigated fields of California's Imperial Valley

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Like many districts, Calexico once placed its L.E.P. students in intensive classes in English as a second language, the goal being to quickly mainstream them into regular classrooms.

As immigration rates increased during the 1970's, however, the district experienced a troubling decline in its standardized-test scores, particularly among the Mexican students who immigrated and entered its schools at an older age and seemed only to fall further and further behind their peers.

Frustrated in its attempts to fit such students into its school system, Calexico began to change the system to fit the needs of the students.

The district's E.S.L. programs soon evolved into bilingual-education programs using native-language instruction.

Then—in a leap few, if any, other districts had yet taken—it began during the 1980's to use bilingual-teaching methodologies throughout the schools, according to Emily J. Palacio, the district's assistant superintendent for instructional services.

As part of this process, the district developed for virtually every subject what Ms. Palacio calls "parallel curricula" in Spanish and in "sheltered" English, that is, English geared to the students' level of proficiency.

"The nature of our population is such that we needed to provide a strong program in whatever language was needed to get the information across," Ms. Palacio says.

"We no longer have those distinctions that 'This is a bilingual program, this is a monolingual program,'" she adds. "We say, 'This is the curriculum. This is what we want students to learn.' We are focused on outcomes."

"The goal," Mr. Moreno explains, "has been to give access to all students, regardless of their background."

Some Skeptical Parents

The changes in Calexico did not take place without controversy, however. Some of the strongest resistance came from Spanish-speaking parents who feared that teaching their children in Spanish would hinder their assimilation and their progress in school.

Even today, most of the parents of entering kindergarten students "fear that if the classes are spoken in Spanish, the children won't learn English," says Mari Marquez, a kindergarten teacher at Maine Elementary School.

Mr. Moreno says the district has allayed many such fears by having principals and teachers reassure parents that their children will be receiving E.S.L. instruction every day. They tell parents that Spanish-language instruction in other subjects is necessary so their children will not be behind in those subjects when they are moved into English-speaking classrooms.

As a concession to those parents who have remained unconvinced, the district also has maintained a handful of classes in each grade level, including kindergarten, that are taught almost entirely in English.

As time has gone by, the demand by Calexico parents for classes taught in English has dropped, Mr. Moreno says. The district's efforts to expand its bilingual programs have been helped, he says, by the fact that the parents opposed to bilingual education have never organised.

The Reagan Administration, which was widely perceived as hostile to bilingual education, actually helped Calexico's efforts by providing funding to help it develop sheltered-English classes for students who were further along in acquiring their new language, Mr. Moreno notes.

Steadily rising achievement rates and test scores also helped quiet many skeptics here, Mr. Moreno says.

Take Children 'Where They Are'

One group of students, however, continued to experience difficulty in the district's schools. Ironically, they were the same students who had first inspired the district's reform efforts—Mexican children who immigrated and entered Calexico's schools at an advanced age.

"The students, as they came in, just weren't fitting in," Mr. Moreno says.

District officials considered establishing a special "newcomer" program for such students, but initially resisted the idea because they feared it would leave the students segregated.

Finally, however, the failure of such students in regular classrooms convinced district officials that they had no other choice. Two years ago, the district piloted newcomer programs for 5th- and 6th-grade students at Maine Elementary and Jefferson Elementary, on opposite sides of town.

The students in such classes receive intensive instruction in English as a second language. In content areas, their teachers try to address perceived deficiencies in the educations the children received in Mexico, giving them extra instruction in areas where they had received little before, such as the applications of hands-on science, and with equipment they had rarely used before, such as computers.

During a tour of the Calexico district this spring, the sounds of both Spanish and English could be heard flowing from the same classrooms and, often, from the same students.

At Dool Elementary School, which is piloting a whole-language program, short stories written in either language covered one 3rd-grade classroom wall.

"I like to take the children where they are at—with the home language that they bring—and build on that," Elena R. Castro, the teacher in that class, says.

On chalkboards throughout the district, some vocabulary words and children's answers were written in English, others in Spanish. Yet there appeared to be no deliberate attempt to translate one language to the other.

In many classrooms, the children were equally mixed together, at least in terms of their language ability.

"I learned a long time ago that I cannot be the only teacher in the classroom," Ms. Castro says. "We mix the children up so that they can learn from each other."

To insure that its faculty members can work with such a mixture of different languages and cultures, the district has made a concerted effort to recruit Hispanic bilingual teachers and to provide them with extensive training—an average of 35 hours per year. Currently, 70 percent of its elementary teachers hold state certification in bilingual education.

In addition, 58 percent of district administrators are Hispanic and bilingual, and all are asked to sign a statement of values that calls for respect for different cultures and languages and holds that all children should have equal access to learning and further education.

Chuck J. Acosta, the immediate past president of the California Association for Bilingual Education, attributes much of Calexico's success to "commitment starting at the top."

"The Calexico model and experience is catching on," Mr. Acosta says, observing that other school systems in his state have begun to try to do the same things, at least on a schoolwide basis.

In at least one respect, Mr. Moreno says, "we are reaping the benefits of seeds we planted."

Calexico High School graduates, he notes proudly, constitute about half of the district's teachers at the elementary level, and are the main source of bilingual teachers for the district as a whole. ■

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ASCD

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Teaching Language-Minority Students

Role of Native-Language Instruction Is Debated

How schools can best serve students who are limited-English-proficient (LEP) has been hotly debated for decades. The main point of contention is whether LEP students should be taught in their native languages—and if so, to what extent.

Today, this debate is intensifying as the number of LEP students rapidly rises. Between 1985 and 1992, the number of LEP students enrolled in U.S. schools increased by nearly 70 percent, to a total of more than 2.5 million students, according to the group Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). During the same period, LEP students increased from 3.8 percent to slightly more than 6 percent of the total K–12 student population, and that proportion continues to expand. "The numbers are just phenomenal," says James Lyons, executive director of the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE).

Much of the debate has focused on the relative merits of bilingual and English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) programs: which type of program serves LEP students better? In simple terms, bilingual programs provide some amount of native-language content instruction for several years, while students also learn English skills during part of the day. The chief goal of these programs is to help students make a successful transition to mainstream classes. In ESL programs, by contrast, students receive content instruction in English (sometimes adapted to their level of proficiency) and are pulled out of the classroom for part of the day to learn English skills with other LEP students. Of the two approaches, ESL programs are more common, experts say.

Advocates of bilingual programs argue that LEP students need native-language content instruction to keep pace in the curriculum with their English-speaking peers while they learn English. If they are simply immersed in English instruction, LEP students miss too much academic content, these experts contend.

Young LEP children can pick up a fair amount of conversational English from their peers, but it's a mistake to think they can dive right into academic work, says Judith Lessow-Hurley of San Jose State

Continued on **page 4**

Susie Fitzhugh

Teaching Language-Minority Students

Continued from **page 1**

University, author of ASCD's *Commonsense Guide to Bilingual Education.* Recent research has shown that LEP students need five to seven years of concentrated instruction in English to develop real academic proficiency in the language, she says. Therefore, it is unfair to expect them to compete in an English-language environment from the beginning. LEP students who receive no instruction in their native language often develop a negative self-concept, get held back, and ultimately may drop out of school, Lyons says.

Backers of bilingual programs also contend that if LEP students develop a strong base in their first language, they will learn English more readily—although this may seem counterintuitive. Students who understand how their native language works, they say, can transfer this understanding to English. In addition, advocates claim that bilingual programs reinforce LEP students' self-esteem and help them maintain their native language.

Bilingual Drawbacks?

Some in the field dispute these views vigorously, however. One outspoken critic of bilingual education is Rosalie Pedalino Porter of the Research in English Acquisition and Development (READ) Institute. Porter, author of *Forked Tongue: The Politics of Bilingual Education*, became disillusioned with bilingual education as a result of her experiences as a bilingual teacher. Although LEP students at her school were supposed to be mainstreamed after their third year in the bilingual program, "it didn't happen," she states flatly. In fact, she was dismayed to find 6th graders who still could not speak, read, or write English. This phenomenon—the failure of students in bilingual programs to acquire adequate English skills—has been documented across the United States, she asserts.

Many experts contend that early native-language instruction can improve LEP students' long-term achievement in English.

The problem with bilingual education lies in the program design, not in the way teachers implement it, Porter believes. Students in bilingual programs become reliant on native-language teaching, she says; the impetus to learn English is not strong enough. And in bilingual classes, LEP students are "segregated for years from their English-speaking classmates."

LEP students are better served if they are taught in English from the beginning, Porter believes. Young children are more capable of absorbing a second language than older ones, she says, and they are less self-conscious about making mistakes. Further, they have more time to devote to the task, simply by virtue of their young age. A skillful teacher can teach them content using "simple English and lots of illustrative materials," Porter says.

Like Porter, other educators dispute the claim that LEP students taught in English cannot keep pace with native speakers. ESL teacher Donna Clovis has found just the opposite to be true of her students. "Sometimes they're doing better than their peers" when they leave her program, she says.

Clovis teaches an ESL pull-out program at Riverside Elementary School in Princeton, N.J. Students remain in the program for one to three years. Clovis's students speak 19 different native languages, including Russian, Spanish, Hungarian, Japanese, and Hebrew. Offering all of these students a bilingual program would be well-nigh impossible, she notes.

Clovis focuses on helping her students develop academic English; her instruction emphasizes reading, writing, and grammar. "I know they'll learn speaking from their peers," she says. Her class is "a forum to make the mistakes" in usage and pronunciation that students might be unwilling to make in a regular classroom.

Nevertheless, Clovis believes LEP students should be part of a regular classroom from the beginning, because they must acquire the conversation skills they need to survive and learn to pick up teachers' cues. "We want everything to be as normal as possible" for them, she says. Although her students receive no native-language instruction, they do not have low self-esteem, Clovis says; in fact, they feel they have *more* to offer.

What Research Says

What light does research shed on these issues? A major longitudinal study conducted for the U.S. Department of Education tracked elementary classes of Spanish-speaking LEP students from 1984–85 to 1987–88. Known as the Ramirez study, after its principal researcher, this study compared the long-term benefits of English immersion, early-exit, and late-exit bilingual programs.

In the immersion programs, all content instruction was in English, with Spanish used only for clarification. Children in these programs were to be mainstreamed within two to three years. In the early-exit programs, 20–30 percent of instruction (usually reading) was in Spanish, and children were to be mainstreamed after 2nd grade. In the late-exit programs, at least 40 percent of instruction was in Spanish, and students stayed in the program through 6th grade.

The Ramirez study found that all three programs helped LEP students improve their skills as fast as, or faster than, students in the general population. The late-exit program, however, showed the most promising results. Students in the immersion and early-exit programs had comparable skill levels in math and language arts (when tested in English) after four years, but their rates of growth slowed as their grade level increased. Late-exit students, by contrast, showed *acceleration* in their rate of growth and appeared to be gaining on students in the general population.

According to researcher Virginia Collier of George Mason University, nearly all the research looking at results over at least four years, including the Ramirez study, shows that the more native-language instructional support LEP students receive (if combined with balanced English support), the higher they are able to achieve in English in each succeeding academic year, relative to matched groups being schooled solely in English. Students who do not receive native-language instruction "appear to do well in the early grades, but their performance fails to match that of the norm group and gains go down as they reach upper elementary and especially secondary schooling," Collier has written.

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ESL programs are the only feasible option for schools with diverse LEP students, supporters say.

Porter disagrees with these findings, and she too cites research to support her contention that teaching LEP students in English is best. A longitudinal study of programs in the El Paso schools commissioned by the READ Institute looked at the lasting academic effects of bilingual and English-immersion programs. The study showed that students in the immersion program outperformed their peers in the bilingual program in all subjects through 7th grade, when the latter group finally caught up.

Two key elements contributed to the success of the El Paso immersion program, says Russell Gersten, a professor of education at the University of Oregon, who was one of the study's researchers. First, the program started building academic language early on, using literature to ensure that English exposure went beyond the conversational. (Gersten notes that there is "overwhelming support" in the field for using literature and content as the vehicles for learning English, rather than a grammar-based approach.) Second, the program kept a modest native-language component for four years (decreasing each year), to provide "a safe anchor" for students.

Strikingly, the Ramirez study supports Porter's claim that bilingual programs launch too few students into mainstream classes. The study found that, despite program objectives, three-fourths of the immersion students and over four-fifths of the early-exit students had not been mainstreamed, even after four years.

Two-Way Bilingual Programs

Recently, another option for LEP (and English-speaking) students, "two-way" bilingual programs, has become increasingly popular, says Deborah Short of the Center for Applied Linguistics. In two-way programs, half the students are native speakers of English; the other half speak another language, usually Spanish. Instruction is delivered in English half the time, and in Spanish the other half. The goal is for all students to become fully bilingual and biliterate. There are about 170 such programs around the United States, Short says.

Key Elementary School in Arlington, Va., offers a two-way bilingual program in English and Spanish, says Principal Katharine Panfil. The school uses either one bilingual teacher or two monolingual teachers to deliver instruction; both approaches work, Panfil says. ("Children actually pick up language better from their peers than from the teacher," she notes.) Year to year, they alternate the language in which each subject is taught: math, for example, is taught in English one year, in Spanish the next.

The benefits of the program are many, Panfil says. "The children in the class become highly fluent in two languages," and they have positive feelings about themselves and speakers of other languages. The program has "a huge waiting list," she adds. "We can't possibly meet the demand."

River Glen Elementary School in San Jose, Calif., offers a variation on the two-way concept, explains resource teacher Linda Luporini-Hakmi. Although two-thirds of the children are English speakers, instruction is predominantly in Spanish; all students learn to speak, read, and write in Spanish. Spanish-speaking students also receive ESL instruction, while English speakers study English language arts.

In this setting, the native Spanish speakers' self-esteem "shoots up," Luporini-Hakmi says. They use their smattering of English to translate for their English-speaking peers. The mixed class gives speakers of Spanish a need to use English, while speakers of English have more opportunity to practice Spanish, she says. Another benefit of the two-way approach is that it mixes English- and Spanish-speaking students and allows them to become friends.

Whatever approach educators take to teaching LEP students, the United States needs to value bilingualism more highly, experts agree. The arrival of LEP students at the schoolhouse door should not be seen as a problem, Short says. If educators plan properly, "these kids can be a resource." Knowing other languages and cultures can only benefit students, she says. "If we start to value bilingualism, we will make the United States a stronger country." ■

—Scott Willis

ESL Standards in Development

Spurred by concern that standard-setting efforts in the subject areas might harm language-minority students, the group Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) has begun to develop standards for English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) instruction.

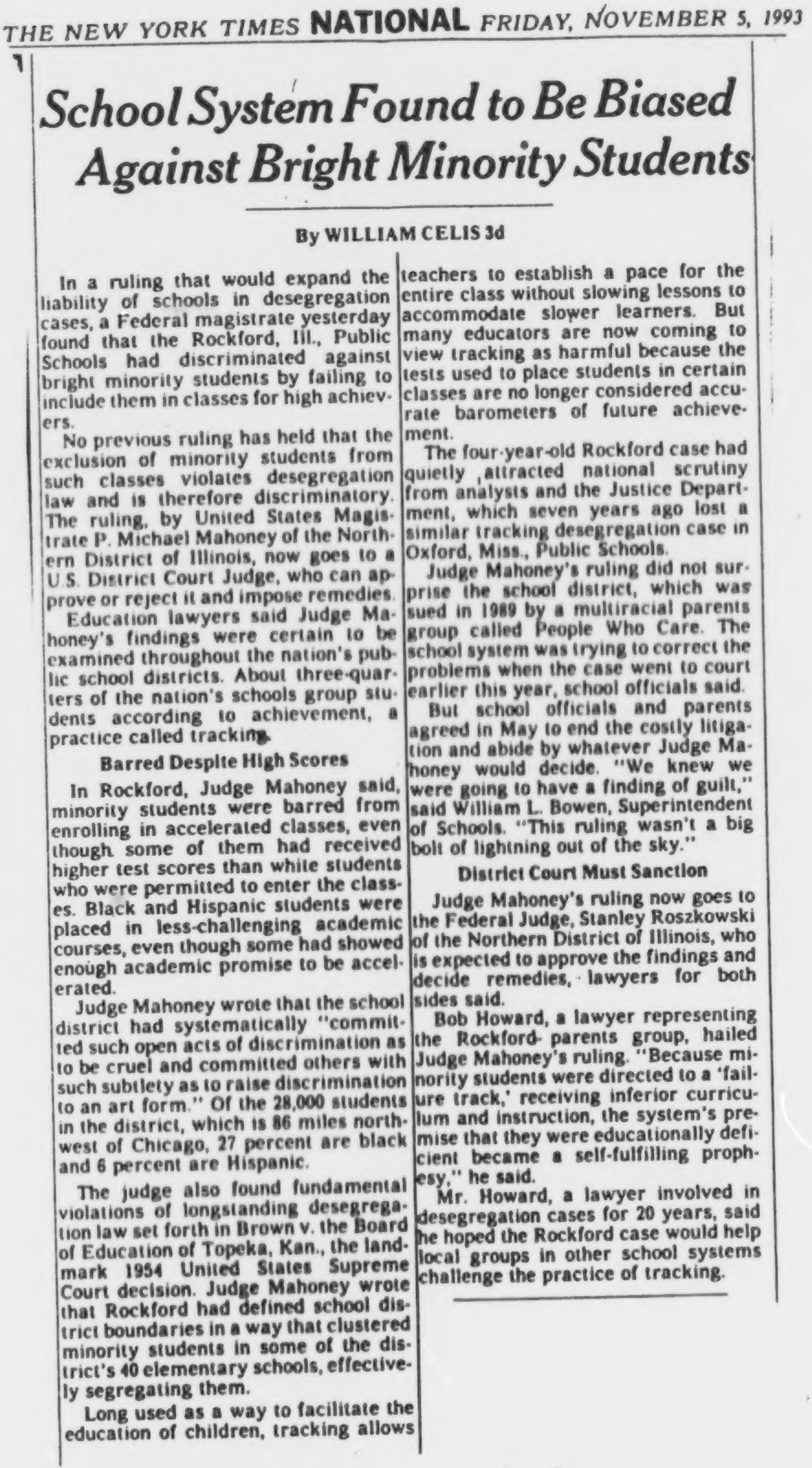
TESOL fears that ESL students will be considered failures if they don't meet standards set for all students, says Else Hamayan of the Illinois Resource Center, who chairs TESOL's task force on ESL standards. At the same time, however, TESOL doesn't want language-minority students to receive a watered-down curriculum. "We're having to deal with some very tough issues," Hamayan says.

The ESL standards will go beyond specifying what students should learn in ESL classes, says Fred Genesee, TESOL's president. They will also address the pedagogy ESL students need if they are to meet subject-area standards, he says, as well as ways to modify the curriculum for these students. In addition, the ESL standards will deal with issues such as teachers' professional development and the assessment of ESL students' achievement.

Assessment is a crucial issue, says Denise McKeon of the American Educational Research Association, a past chair of the ESL task force. McKeon believes educators should provide alternative ways for language-minority students to show what they know, so there won't be "a penalty for those who know content but can't express it in English." LEP students may understand concepts such as the evaporation cycle or mitosis and meiosis but not test well in English, Genesee says. "If use of [English] is the sine qua non of assessment procedures, then these kids will lose out."

Hamayan hopes the ESL standards will make all educators, including non-ESL teachers, more aware of the particular needs of language-minority students. She also hopes they will help ensure that ESL teaching is "up to par."

Appropriate pedagogy is essential if ESL students are to meet the content standards in the subject areas, Genesee emphasizes. "The easy part is saying what you want," he believes. "The hard part is figuring out how to do it." ■



THE NEW YORK TIMES **NATIONAL** FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 5, 1993

School System Found to Be Biased Against Bright Minority Students

By WILLIAM CELIS 3d

In a ruling that would expand the liability of schools in desegregation cases, a Federal magistrate yesterday found that the Rockford, Ill., Public Schools had discriminated against bright minority students by failing to include them in classes for high achievers.

No previous ruling has held that the exclusion of minority students from such classes violates desegregation law and is therefore discriminatory. The ruling, by United States Magistrate P. Michael Mahoney of the Northern District of Illinois, now goes to a U.S. District Court Judge, who can approve or reject it and impose remedies.

Education lawyers said Judge Mahoney's findings were certain to be examined throughout the nation's public school districts. About three-quarters of the nation's schools group students according to achievement, a practice called tracking.

Barred Despite High Scores

In Rockford, Judge Mahoney said, minority students were barred from enrolling in accelerated classes, even though some of them had received higher test scores than white students who were permitted to enter the classes. Black and Hispanic students were placed in less-challenging academic courses, even though some had showed enough academic promise to be accelerated.

Judge Mahoney wrote that the school district had systematically "committed such open acts of discrimination as to be cruel and committed others with such subtlety as to raise discrimination to an art form." Of the 28,000 students in the district, which is 86 miles northwest of Chicago, 27 percent are black and 6 percent are Hispanic.

The judge also found fundamental violations of longstanding desegregation law set forth in Brown v. the Board of Education of Topeka, Kan., the landmark 1954 United States Supreme Court decision. Judge Mahoney wrote that Rockford had defined school district boundaries in a way that clustered minority students in some of the district's 40 elementary schools, effectively segregating them.

Long used as a way to facilitate the education of children, tracking allows teachers to establish a pace for the entire class without slowing lessons to accommodate slower learners. But many educators are now coming to view tracking as harmful because the tests used to place students in certain classes are no longer considered accurate barometers of future achievement.

The four-year-old Rockford case had quietly attracted national scrutiny from analysts and the Justice Department, which seven years ago lost a similar tracking desegregation case in Oxford, Miss., Public Schools.

Judge Mahoney's ruling did not surprise the school district, which was sued in 1989 by a multiracial parents group called People Who Care. The school system was trying to correct the problems when the case went to court earlier this year, school officials said.

But school officials and parents agreed in May to end the costly litigation and abide by whatever Judge Mahoney would decide. "We knew we were going to have a finding of guilt," said William L. Bowen, Superintendent of Schools. "This ruling wasn't a big bolt of lightning out of the sky."

District Court Must Sanction

Judge Mahoney's ruling now goes to the Federal Judge, Stanley Roszkowski of the Northern District of Illinois, who is expected to approve the findings and decide remedies, lawyers for both sides said.

Bob Howard, a lawyer representing the Rockford parents group, hailed Judge Mahoney's ruling. "Because minority students were directed to a 'failure track,' receiving inferior curriculum and instruction, the system's premise that they were educationally deficient became a self-fulfilling prophesy," he said.

Mr. Howard, a lawyer involved in desegregation cases for 20 years, said he hoped the Rockford case would help local groups in other school systems challenge the practice of tracking.

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NEW ENGLAND MULTIFUNCTIONAL RESOURCE CENTER
FOR
LANGUAGE AND CULTURE IN EDUCATION

A Program of The Education Alliance at Brown University

Dr. Adeline Becker, Executive Director
Charlene Heintz, Director, MRC

A Consortium of:

Brown University
University of Hartford
University of Massachusetts
University of Southern Maine

"INCLUSION"

What does it really mean for language minority students?

MRC Staff Development Institute

July 15, 1994

Presenters: C.Heintz, G.Gonsalves, M.Pacheco and J.Yedlin

AGENDA

I. Introduction to the issue of Inclusion in New England

II. Two case studies

III. What does Inclusion mean in the LEP context?
The NEMRC's draft position document

IV. Group discussion

New England MRC, Brown University, 144 Wayland Avenue, Providence,RI 02906-4384
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"INCLUSION"

What does it really mean
for
language minority students?

The term "inclusion," originated in the context of special education, has recently become part of the discourse of language minority education. As advocates for language minority students it behooves us to examine the concept of inclusion and to help educators develop structures and strategies for successful and authentic integration where children's right to understandable instruction is not sacrificed. The staff of the New England MRC is in the process of developing a position document, a draft of which appears below, to help our clients in New England make informed and responsible decisions.

In the LEP context.........

Inclusion means a **school policy** that demonstrates a commitment to language minority students and to their specific educational needs.

Inclusion ensures **meaningful access** to active participation in all programs and services.

Inclusion recognizes that LEP students' languages and cultures constitute **rich cultural and linguistic resources** for the school community.

Inclusion promotes intercultural growth and understanding, appreciation of diversity and cognitive and linguistic enrichment.

Inclusion does not subordinate **the right to understandable instruction** or the goal of **academic achievement** to social integration.

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Inclusion does not **supplant or preclude bilingual education and/or ESL** programs or ESL instruction or methodology.

Full ***inclusion*** may **not be appropriate for all students** particularly, new arrivals.

Inclusion does **not preclude homogeneous grouping of** some students for appropriate and meaningful **specialized instruction**.

Inclusion **does not preclude the use of native language(s)** or alternative approaches to assessment.

Inclusion requires **professionals trained and certified to** meet the specific needs of language minority students.

Inclusion requires respect and validation of diverse teaching skills and perspectives that lead to **equal partnerships among professionals** for the benefit of students.

Inclusion encourages hiring practices that seek qualified **personnel representing the diverse student population.**

Inclusion requires ongoing **staff development** that taps the diverse skills and perspectives of school professionals.

Inclusion requires professionals who view themselves as learners and schools as **communities of learners.**

Inclusion invites **family and community involvement** in all aspects of children's schooling.

Inclusion means that **decision making is a shared process** involving students, parents, and staff trained to represent the interests of language minority students.

SOME HELPFUL QUESTIONS TO ASK ABOUT INTEGRATION AND INCLUSION PROGRAMS FOR BILINGUAL STUDENTS:

Developed by Catherine Walsh, MRC/UMASS

* What is the motivation for more integrative, collaborative, and inclusive educational approaches?

* Who is being integrated or included with whom and why?

* Is there already a school or district plan for racial integration? Is it working? Are bilingual program students a part of this plan? How are they treated under such plan?

* Is there a special education inclusion model in place? How is it working? Are bilingual special education students a part of the program? How are their needs being met?

* How does linguistic/cultural integration currently occur? How will it occur in the *inclusion* program? What are the advantages and limitations?

* How do integration and *inclusion* interface with success and achievement? With racial/ethnic identity, status, and power concerns and self-esteem?

* What might equitable approaches to integration, collaboration, and *inclusion* look like?

* How are bilingual program students' sociocultural realities included in the overall life of the classroom, the school, and the school district? What needs to be done to make *inclusion* real and not illusory?

*What actions could be taken for the *inclusion* /integration of staff, parents, and the students' communities? For community collaboration with schools?

When Meeting "Common" Standards Is Uncommonly Difficult

Denise McKeon

Because limited-English-proficient learners bear an exceptionally heavy cognitive and linguistic load, they need stepped-up assistance to help them meet new content standards.

Put yourself in the place of an average limited-English-proficient student. How would you perform on challenging subject matter tests given in a language you don't understand?

Visionaries foresee a restructured educational system in the United States that will hold all students to high common standards of world-class achievement. According to this vision, the standards will not only result in better teaching and learning, but will also guarantee that schools are accountable for the success of all students. American schools will achieve both equity and excellence.

These goals are laudable, and all citizens can rally behind them. We also need to think, however, about their implications for the more than 2.6 million children classified as limited-English-proficient (U. S. Department of Education 1992). If anything, this large number underestimates the number of people who are not fluent in English. More than 6.3 million children in the U. S. report speaking a non-English language at home (National Association of Bilingual Education 1993).

The size of the limited-English-proficient (LEP) population is important because meeting the content standards developed for areas like mathematics, social studies, and so on will be disproportionately difficult for LEP students. They will have to perform at much higher cognitive and linguistic levels than their monolingual English-speaking peers.

The St. Petersburg Problem

To illustrate the dynamics of the difficulty for LEP students, imagine that you are a student working with a group of peers on a science project dealing with the effects of photosynthesis. You have undertaken several experiments with plants. The process requires you to plant, measure, discuss, evaluate results, and prepare a report.

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Now imagine that you're doing this project on the outskirts of St. Petersburg. That's St. Petersburg, *Russia.* Other than you, all the members of your group are native speakers of Russian. You have had an introductory course in the language, but you are still limited-Russian-proficient.

Is the task that you must perform more difficult than it is for the Russian-speaking students? Of course it is. The proficient speakers of Russian are learning content with a language that for them is practically automatic. You, on the other hand, must decipher the many structures and functions of the language before any content will make sense. In order to contribute to the group, you must negotiate your way through a series of unfamiliar sociolinguistic and sociocultural acts. When you use Russian to talk about your experiments or write your part of the report, you must not only grasp the content, but struggle to make the language express what you know. In short, the proficient speakers of Russian can focus primarily on cognitive tasks, while you must focus on cognitive *and* linguistic tasks.

If, before you came to Russia, you studied photosynthesis in a science class taught in English, you and your classmates will be learning different sets of content and procedures. You already understand the concept of photosynthesis and the specialized vocabulary needed to talk about it, so what you need to learn is how to express this knowledge in Russian. Thus, you must focus on language skills while the rest of the class concentrates on science.

If you've never studied the concept of photosynthesis, your cognitive and linguistic burden will be much heavier because you will have to gain access to new scientific concepts and vocabulary through a language that you do not understand, speak, read, or write well. In effect, you must meet a higher standard of performance.

Almost one in four LEP students receives *no* specialized instruction to help smooth the transition to learning academic content in English.

Other Problems for LEP Students

The St. Petersburg problem conveys some, but not all, of the linguistic challenges that many limited-English-proficient students face in meeting standards developed for monolingual English-speaking students. For instance, some LEP students who enter American schools are academically delayed in their first language. They must then try to learn even more advanced content in a new language.

Another complication stems from the fact that LEP students enter this country at various points in their academic careers (kindergarten, 4th grade, 11th grade, and so on). The higher the grade level, the more limited-English-proficiency is likely to weigh on students because at higher levels of schooling, the cognitive and linguistic loads are heavier.

A third factor compounding the burden for LEP students is that they enter the United States from many places. In the different countries of origin, curricular sequences, content objectives, and instructional methodologies may differ dramatically from American practices. Students from China, for example, may use different rules and formulas to work algebra problems, and they often ignore the complicated conceptual approaches to problem solving that are common in American classes (Tsang 1987). Newcomers from China may thus be at a great disadvantage in a class that emphasizes higher-order thinking, and what they actually know and are able to do may not show up in assessments that are based on our content standards.

LEP Students and Content Standards

Let's face facts. Learning about photosynthesis in a language that you speak almost automatically is a different proposition than learning about it in a language that you have yet to master. And being held accountable for knowing long division by 4th grade is hardly fair for test takers who recently arrived from a country where long division isn't presented until 5th grade.

I am not saying that LEP students shouldn't be held to high standards or taught to develop higher-order thinking skills. In fact, for far too long the expectations held for many LEP students have been unreasonably low.

If they are to achieve the content standards being developed, however, we must acknowledge that for LEP students, meeting content standards is a more complex and cognitively demanding task than it is for students who are proficient in English. We must also pay more attention to the fact that LEP students may know as much as monolingual English speakers, but not the same things (not the least of these accomplishments is being able to understand, speak, read, write, reason, and remember academic content in a language other than English).

Opportunity to Learn

We should all stop talking about lowering standards for LEP students. Then we would have plenty of time to discuss the support that these youngsters need in order to meet high standards.

While those of us who work with LEP students applaud education reformers and policymakers for

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Lynn Ward

seizing on the idea that all students can learn and reach high standards of achievement, we are troubled by a lack of systematic attention to opportunity-to-learn standards. From daily experience, we know that most LEP students do not get sufficient access to high-quality instruction and needed services.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), a professional organization of teachers, teacher educators, researchers, and linguists, has recently formulated and announced a set of opportunity-to-learn standards for LEP students. The standards are divided into four areas:

- access to a positive learning environment,
- access to appropriate curriculum,
- access to full delivery of services,
- access to equitable assessment.

Although these items may seem pretty basic, the state of LEP education in the U. S. is such that attainment of these four conditions would go a long way toward eradicating three problems that impede LEP student achievement:

1. *Programmatic deficiencies.* In 1992, the Department of Education reported data showing that almost one in four LEP students receives *no* specialized instruction to help smooth the transition to learning in English. Federally funded bilingual education programs serve only 11 percent of the likely candidates for such instruction, and even then, the assistance generally stops prematurely. It serves students for a maximum of three years, despite research findings indicating that LEP students take from five to seven years (or longer) to approach grade-level norms on English-language standardized achievement tests (Collier 1987, Cummins 1981).

Even students who do receive specialized help are often shut off from curricular options. For example, Travers (1987) traced the low mathematics achievement of language-minority students to limited opportunities to learn mathematics. The limitations occur for two reasons: (1) discrepancies between the intended curriculum (the content material found in curriculum guides and textbooks) and the implemented curriculum (what the teacher actually teaches); and (2) the inappropriate placement of LEP students in remedial classes.

More recently (in 1992), Minicucci and Olsen's report on 27 secondary school programs in California said that fewer than one-fourth of the schools offer full programs (that is, programs that offer all content subjects at all grade levels in classes designed to meet the needs of LEP students). The researchers found that more than half of the high schools and a third of the intermediate schools had major gaps in their offerings for LEP students. Some offered no content classes at all for LEP students. It will not surprise you to learn that in several of the schools "the dropout rate was sufficiently high among these students to make 11th and 12th grade content classes unnecessary." One school even had a policy not to enroll new LEP students over age 16. Such students were referred to adult education programs.

Even special instructional services and resources appear to neglect the LEP population. For instance, although LEP students are included in counts to generate Chapter One funding, the LEP students who might benefit from Chapter One services are often denied them (Strang and Carlson 1991). We have indications, too, that LEP students have scant access to technology. A report from the U. S. Congress's Office of Technology Assessment (cited in Cummins and Sayers 1991) shows that students from language minority backgrounds are much less likely to have the opportunity to use a computer for learning. Cummins and Sayers add that only a few commercially available software programs (1 percent) are appropriate for students learning English as a second language.

2. *Teacher preparation deficiencies.* In 1992, only 37 states required any kind of certification or endorsement to teach English as a second language (Stewart 1993), and only 30 states required certification to teach in bilingual education programs (National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education 1993). In states that do require certification, significant numbers of ESL and bilingual teachers hold substandard certificates, in many cases because the teachers lack proper coursework (Cooperman 1986).

Despite the fact that half of all American teachers teach a limited-English-proficient student at some time in their careers (O'Malley and Waggoner 1984), *no* state requires every certified teacher to have some training or coursework focusing on strategies for teaching second-language learners. Although a number of organizations (such as NCATE, the National Council for the Accreditation

Half of all American teachers teach a limited-English-proficient student at some time in their careers.

of Teacher Education) have urged teacher training institutions to include training in multiculturalism, a 1991 study of 132 universities found more than half deficient in meeting the recommendation (Stewart 1993).

3. *Assessment.* This issue is of great concern to educators and parents of LEP students. Standardized testing in particular has long been a source of heated debate because, on the basis of test scores, LEP children are often misassigned to lower curriculum tracks or special education (Council of Chief State School Officers 1990, LaCelle-Peterson and Rivera 1994).

Although the current move toward performance assessment seems to offer a more promising method of diagnosing the needs and determining the capabilities of LEP students, it also raises serious new questions of reliability and validity. For example, we don't yet know if LEP students writing in English can be measured accurately with the same scoring rubrics used to judge the writing of monolingual English speakers. It may be that scoring rubrics developed specifically for LEP students would more accurately measure what these students know and are able to do (McKeon 1992).

In dealing with these three areas of concern, we must not be misled by occasional news reports that feature some newly arrived LEP student who has put forth phenomenal effort and graduated as class valedictorian. Such stories depict the exception, not the rule. They do not reflect the experience of the vast majority of LEP students.

Put yourself in the place of an average limited-English-proficient student. You attend a school that offers no ESL or bilingual instruction, has no teachers trained in ESL or bilingual education, places you in low-level or remedial classes, cuts you off from some content areas, and fails to provide Chapter One or other specialized services. How would you perform on challenging subject matter tests given in a language you don't understand? Would you be likely to meet or exceed national content standards?

Enhancing the Possibility of LEP Student Achievement

To ensure that LEP students will meet content standards and help the nation reach its six National Education Goals, educators need to take five relatively simple steps:

1. School and district officials can systematically examine the academic program open to their limited-English-proficient students. Often, it is helpful to select three or four LEP students with different backgrounds, reviewing the type of course offerings available to fill the special needs of each. Do the courses offered provide support in learning English as second language? Do they provide challenging content teaching, either in the student's first language or by "sheltering" the content (that is, teaching academic content along with the language needed to learn it).

2. Using the TESOL Access Standards as a guideline, school personnel can review their approach to educating limited-English-proficient students. The school environment can support LEP students' learning and value their linguistic and cultural diversity (approaches should add to, rather than replace, students' cultural repertoires).

3. State and school district officials can make sure that ESL and bilingual educators are included on teams that develop curriculum frameworks. Often, ESL and bilingual educators use alternative instructional techniques (such as bilingual education or content-based ESL) to teach particular subjects (science, social studies, and so on). If these professionals help to develop curriculum frameworks, they can ensure that the instruction for LEP students is up-to-date, effective, and consistent with local standards.

4. State and district officials can discuss alternative ways to judge the performance of limited-English-proficient students. Some students might show what they know through portfolios. Others, especially those in bilingual programs, might demonstrate achievement in a language other than English.

5. State and district officials can support the development of standards for the discipline of English as a second language. (Although TESOL and the National Association for Bilingual Education are collaborating to develop ESL content standards, calls for federal support of this project have gone unanswered. The federal government has, however, supported standards development in other disciplines).

Professional teaching standards for ESL are needed to ensure that its instructors are highly skilled, and content standards are important because many LEP students receive ESL in place of regular language arts. In other words, ESL is not watered-down language arts, but a discipline-driven, specialized subject for the fastest growing population of students in the U. S. today. Without standards for ESL, we have no way of knowing how well or how fast these students are acquiring English, nor can we determine how well ESL instructional programs are meeting students' needs.

Taking these five extra steps in behalf of what is now a poorly served student population is essential. After all, common standards cannot be met by using common approaches for all students, nor can content standards be met if schools fail to provide certain students with common opportunities. ■

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Promoting Change in Programs for Limited English Proficient Students

Five aspects of change were considered as Calexico High School gathered information from students, teachers, and administrators in a four-stage training needs assessment. A staff development program was then designed to enhance teachers' abilities to teach limited English proficient students.

GILBERT MENDEZ

A systematic training needs assessment was used to prepare the groundwork for staff development programs to enhance teachers' abilities to teach limited English proficient (LEP) students in Calexico (California) High School. This article addresses the challenge facing educators working with LEP students, five aspects of change that must be considered, the systematic training needs assessment, and recommendations for program changes.

The Challenge

"Too many (students) are placed in classes for LEP (limited English proficient) when they could profit from an English class."

"I have been teaching a 'bilingual class' for too many years without any guidelines. I am left to do as I please. My instruction is probably effective, but who is to say it is . . ."

"In mathematics, the important thing is the concepts taught; the language I use is irrelevant."

*"We do too much for students in Spanish. They don't **have** to learn English, so many don't."*

The preceding quotes illustrate the range of feelings expressed by teachers at Calexico High School in California regarding the education of limited English proficient (LEP) students. These quotes, taken from a training needs assessment survey, demonstrate that staff developers need to consider teachers' attitudes before implementing training sessions which promote change.

Much like the third law of inertia, attitudes at rest tend to remain the same unless a force moves them in another direction. Staff developers need to provide the force or energy for change. How administrators and staff developers apply this energy will determine how effective an inservice program is, as measured by improved educational programs for students. Mandatory workshops that are implemented from the top without input from those affected, and that have no administrative support for practice, feedback, and coaching, will probably fail.

Five Aspects of Change

There are five aspects of change to consider before attempting to implement new programs. First, factors that can inhibit change must be assessed. Second, there must be awareness of a problem. Third, staff buy-in is essential to the success of improvement efforts. Fourth, an assessment of the current programs and resources should be made. And fifth, participants' concerns and levels of expertise should be determined prior to training.

First, staff developers need to assess factors that inhibit change and keep staff development from being effective. Many factors can derail a school district's effort to bring about change: (a) lack of time to plan and carry out staff development or to follow up, (b) lack of funds, (c) lack of space, (d) apathetic teachers, (e) apathetic administrators, and (f) differing per-

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ceptions of the role of the teacher and administrators (King, Vold, & Hood, 1985).

Ways must be found to address these problems. These include clearly identifying the problem, developing a sense of ownership on the part of staff and administrators, assessing current programs, and assessing the current skill level of staff.

A second aspect of change is to clearly identify the problem. Dodge, Bryant, Guillen, Kohn, Panfil, and Plitt (1984) suggested that awareness of the problem is the starting point. Awareness may be the vague feeling someone has that something isn't quite right.

Much like the third law of inertia, attitudes at rest tend to remain the same unless a force moves them in another direction. Staff developers need to provide the force or energy for change.

Third, staff developers and administrators need to develop a school-wide sense of ownership and commitment to solving the problem. This means that teachers need to have an active role in the planning process (Dodge, et al., 1984; King, et al., 1985). Administrators committed to school improvement need to identify informal and formal faculty leaders and involve them in the design and implementation process.

If training sessions that failed were analyzed, inadequate involvement of teachers in planning would often be a contributing factor. For example, some inservice sessions at Calexico High School have not been well received because administrators failed to involve a significant number of participants prior to the programs. A recent staff development program on reading with mandatory teacher attendance failed miserably because the teachers opposed the particular reading methodology proposed in the program. If the teachers had been consulted before the consultants were in the room, planners would have recognized this opposition and could have avoided this problem.

A fourth aspect of change is the need to assess existing programs, resources, and conditions. In addition, planners must assess teacher-initiated efforts and the extent of community and parent involvement. Possible ideas for new programs can be generated from staff and community meetings, conventions and workshops, and visits to other schools.

Fifth, participants' concerns and levels of use and expertise should be determined prior to inservice training. Marsh and Jordan-Marsh (1985) and Marsh, Pelland, Melle, and Cook (1985) suggested assessing participants' concerns beforehand using a "stages of concern" instrument (Hall & Hord, 1987). According to Hall and Hord, participants move from the awareness level to the informational, personal, and management levels, and then on to the consequence, collaboration, and refocusing levels.

Each level of concern requires a different response in order to provide training appropriate to participants' skills and concerns regarding the innovation. At the personal stage of concern, for example, teachers may be worried about the demands of the innovation on their time. These concerns should be addressed before new techniques are implemented in the classroom.

The likelihood of implementing change increases when staff developers can: (a) involve significant others, (b) correctly assess needs and resources, (c) generate administrative and faculty support, and (d) identify the problems. Therefore, it is essential that the framework for change be established before the staff development program begins. One way to do this is with a training needs assessment (to be discussed more fully in the next section), a strategy used in planning corporate training and development (Rossett, 1987a). The needs assessment examines the school culture, defines aims and end results, clarifies purposes through dialogue and questions, and gathers relevant information (White, 1986).

Because of the political nature of bilingual education and programs for students with limited English proficiency, programs serving language minority students need to be evaluated carefully, and a systematic training needs assessment can be a particularly valuable planning tool. This assessment can provide a strong impetus for change since its use can:

- Provide insights into students' needs and educational goals
- Assess teachers' levels of concern regarding innovations
- Significantly involve teachers, administrators, and students in the planning process
- Help determine if the problem to be addressed is a performance or an organizational one
- Determine the nature of training required, if any training is appropriate

Providing effective inservice training to the district faculty and staff in order to better serve such a diverse and changing student population is a serious challenge for the teachers and administrators.

A systematic training needs assessment, based on a business and industry strategic planning model (Rossett, 1987b; White, 1986), was used at Calexico High School to provide information for a staff development program designed to support the curriculum used to teach LEP students. In previous staff development programs at Calexico High School, program planners had rarely involved participants in the planning process or tried to see if the problems would be solved through educational intervention. As a result of this limited participant involvement and inappropriate use of inservice education, some programs have been poorly received.

Staff Development Survey and Program

Calexico School District in Calexico, California, has experienced a dramatic increase in students in recent years. Furthermore, 70% of these students are LEP. Of the district's 6,000 students, 98% are Hispanic and 1,618 come from migrant farm families. Providing effective inservice training to the district faculty and staff in order to better serve such a diverse and changing student population is a serious challenge for the teachers and administrators.

As the background of our students shifts, challenges emerge as teachers face language and cultural differences. While Calexico has always had a large Hispanic population, the recent influx of students has strained the district's ability to serve all students efficiently. Since few bilingual teachers are available, other teachers were trained to teach LEP students effectively. The district needed to assess how effectively current programs were meeting the needs of staff and students. In this light, the faculty's feelings about the use of Spanish and English as a medium for instruction in content-area classrooms needed to be assessed. In addition, it was important to ascertain teachers' knowledge regarding techniques and strategies for teaching LEP students.

Needs Assessment

To assess teachers' feelings, motivation, and knowledge about different language uses, Rossett's (1987) training needs assessment model was used. The model is based on business and industry strategic planning to determine: (a) optimal performance; (b) actual performance; (c) feelings; and (d) environmental-, motivational-, or knowledge-based causes. A four-stage needs assessment was planned, using administrators, bilingual and monolingual English teachers, and students as resources.

In Stage 1, interviews were conducted with administrators; five experienced bilingual teachers; five English-As-a-Second-Language (ESL) teachers; and high-, middle-, and low-achieving students selected by their ESL and English teachers. The administrators and the bilingual and ESL teachers were interviewed to determine feelings about and knowledge of effective teaching strategies for LEP students. The administrators elaborated on the types of techniques and behaviors they thought good teachers should demonstrate.

> ***One result of the survey was that teacher and administrator interest was generated for improving the programs for LEP students.***

The teachers, on the other hand, elaborated less on effective teaching techniques for LEP students and more on structural or organizational concerns. The teachers identified problems that impeded their effectiveness in their classrooms, including things such as inadequate materials and a lack of clear guidelines on the use of Spanish and/or English in bilingual classes. The LEP students were asked to comment on their perceptions of their classes, their educational goals, and their feelings toward learning English.

In Stage 2 of the needs assessment, bilingual and ESL teachers were observed in their classrooms to gather information about their actual performance. In Stage 3, teachers were again interviewed to gather their ideas for solutions to identified problems.

Based on the concerns expressed during the interviews, Stage 4 involved a survey of the bilingual and monolingual English teachers in the content areas and a separate survey for LEP students. Teachers were asked questions regarding their feelings about LEP students and their skills in teaching them. They were asked to respond to statements such as: "I need specific techniques to help my students acquire English in my content area." "I feel frustrated at times when my students don't learn English as fast as I'd like." "The use of Spanish in school will help with the acquisition of English." and "I feel I have the necessary skills to help LEP students acquire English in my content area."

Teachers were also asked in the survey about factors they thought contributed to the acquisition of English, or lack of it, at Calexico High School. In addition, they were asked to rate specific training topics related to teaching LEP students. These topics included items such as cooperative learning, motivating and interacting equally with all students, teaching English in the content areas, and teaching writing in the content areas.

The Spanish-language survey for students inquired about their feelings toward the use of Spanish and English in their content-area classes and about the general quality of their present educational programs.

Findings

Surprisingly, results of the survey indicated very few differences between the perceptions of the bilingual and the monolingual English staff. One major difference was in the use of Spanish as a vehicle for acquiring English in content areas. Bilingual teachers believed that the use of Spanish in school would promote English acquisition, but monolingual teachers saw it differently. Also, while bilingual teachers felt they needed specific techniques to help students acquire English in their classrooms, the regular teachers were unsure or neutral about needing assistance in this area.

Both groups of teachers felt that teaching higher-order thinking skills was a problem because of language barriers. In addition, a higher percentage of the bilingual teachers felt that more LEP students could function in an English-only environment (100% vs. 85%). Of the monolingual English teachers responding, 77% indicated that the use of ineffective teaching techniques was a significant if not a major factor in educating LEP students, whereas 86% of the bilingual teachers felt the same.

Concerning possible topics for inservice training, more bilingual teachers indicated a need for a variety of techniques to improve their teaching of LEP students. A higher percentage of monolingual English teachers believed that topics such as cooperative learning, writing across the curriculum, and bilingual methodologies, would be of no use to them.

Through their responses, students indicated that learning English was very important to them regardless of their current English proficiency. Beginning ESL students said they needed native Spanish language support in their content classes. Intermediate students were divided on this issue, while advanced students generally indicated that they did not need as much native language support.

One result of the survey was that teacher and administrator interest was generated for improving the programs for LEP students. As a result of the findings of the four-stage needs assessment, a "sheltered" English component will be added to the bilingual program for advanced ESL students. This resulted from the teacher and student desires to accelerate the students' acquisition of English. A sheltered English content class uses English as a medium of instruction, but it is made comprehensible to LEP students by a variety of techniques. This approach also can incorporate other teaching strategies such as cooperative learning and writing as a process. It is an excellent tool to provide a transition from native language instruction to English language instruction in the content classes.

Inservice training sessions for three volunteer bilingual and eight monolingual teachers were provided in June 1988, with classroom implementation scheduled for 1988-89. Training included 3 days in June and 2 days in August, with an emphasis on language acquisition theory, demonstrations of sheltered techniques, practice, and feedback. Peer observation and coaching were also planned for 1988-89, with a possible released day during the school year for problem solving.

The training sessions focused on strategies that make content lessons understandable to second language learners. These included use of visuals and gestures, slowing and modifying teacher speech, teaching key vocabulary, and checking for understanding. In addition, the teachers were trained to use small cooperative groups and critical thinking questioning tactics. A third focus was on planning the courses and lessons. Teachers were trained to organize lessons covering as many modalities as possible and to adapt texts and materials to the needs of LEP students. Teachers had time to plan lessons and to practice them during the training sessions.

As the ethnic composition of the student body changes, there is the need to change educational approaches to better serve the new arrivals. Staff developers need to consider population changes when planning inservice.

The program started with approximately 100 students in sheltered math, science, and social science classes. During the school year teachers conducted peer coaching to assist each other in the use of the techniques in the classroom.

Recommendations

Four critical steps in promoting changes in the program for LEP students were found: (a) assessing students' needs and desires, (b) determining teachers' receptivity to change, (c) planning for teacher and administration support, and (d) taking the time to plan effectively.

The first recommendation for modifying an existing program or implementing one similar to the sheltered English program is to determine students' needs and desires. In the case of Calexico High School, the students most receptive and able were the third year ESL students, along with a small number of second year students. Even though all the ESL students indicated that learning English was a primary goal, most ESL I and ESL II students did not feel comfortable about their ability to function in an all-English content class.

Second, it is as important to consider teachers' feelings and attitudes as well as skills when planning LEP programs. While most people would agree that learning English is very important, all teachers are not ready to change their program to accommodate LEP students and to meet students' needs. At Calexico High School, a lack of knowledge about the different programs for LEP students created a problem for teacher recruitment: teachers were hesitant about volunteering for a program they knew little about. This was remedied by providing information at the teachers' levels of concern about the goals and objectives of sheltered English classes at small group meetings, at a presentation at the monthly department chairpersons' meeting, and by talking to teachers individually.

A third recommendation is to involve as many of the potentially affected individuals early on in the planning process. Had monolingual English content area teachers been involved in the planning from the beginning, their recruitment would have been easier. As it happened, only administrators and bilingual and ESL teachers participated in the planning since they deal directly with LEP students. Fortunately, more than enough teachers volunteered to staff a pilot program next year.

Fourth, it is critical to take the time and effort to thoroughly plan each step. Using a systematic training needs assessment provided a useful guide for planning and implementing the program. The amount of time spent initially was worth the effort.

Conclusion

Change similar to that experienced at Calexico High School is something most school districts will have to address sooner or later as ethnic diversity increases. As the ethnic composition of the student body changes, there is the need to change educational approaches to better serve the new arrivals. Staff developers need to consider population changes when planning inservice.

While all staff developers need be aware of change strategies such as stages of concern, school-wide participation, problem solving, and needs assessment, this is especially critical in promoting changes in programs for limited-English proficient students. A systematic training needs assessment that uses multiple sources for decision making can provide the groundwork for promoting change. ⊞

> ***A systematic training needs assessment that uses multiple sources for decision making can provide the groundwork for promoting change.***

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ESL Policies and School Restructuring: Risks and Opportunities for Language Minority Students

Ofelia B. Miramontes

Introduction

Within the current reform movements, particularly those emphasizing participatory management, there are renewed opportunities to work toward providing more equitable instructional programs for linguistically diverse students. Such reform efforts call for individual schools, and the staff within those schools, to assume greater responsibility for meeting the needs of their communities. They also provide a greater voice for teachers in coordinating and

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cooperating on the development of programs for students within a school (Metz, 1990; Quality Education for Minorities Project, 1990). The assumption is that as an educational community each site will have the knowledge, expertise, and commitment to improve programs for all of the children they serve. However, because such reforms decentralize decision making for educational policies and practices (placing most curricular decisions in the hands of the individual schools), they also have the potential for further fragmenting and reducing services for linguistically diverse students.

For minority groups the potential risk of site-based approaches is that where once there was strength in numbers (that is, policies for students were advocated based on a broader student constituency), the shift from interdistrict to site-specific articulation of programs neutralizes this position. Consequently it may directly place the responsibility for advocating, designing, implementing, maintaining, and assessing such programs on the handful of teachers who are most involved in working with linguistically diverse students—without their having the benefit of a higher authority to back them up. These teachers may now find themselves alone in their advocacy of particular positions for a relatively small number of students within their school site. They may also find themselves having to advance positions that are relatively unknown to the general education population, and that may be not only unpopular but highly controversial as well. Advancing such positions is particularly risky if advocacy is not legitimized and supported within the context of change.

It can be successfully argued, of course, that relying on centralized systems has proven to be unsatisfactory, that many district-wide policies and programs have traditionally been flawed, hindering rather than supporting the development of instructional efforts for LEP students, and that such failures are, in fact, the catalyst for reform. Nevertheless, restructuring itself is no panacea and presents some unique challenges to achieving and maintaining the integrity and effectiveness of programs for linguistically diverse students.

Since site-based management teams have the responsibility to set policy for their schools, they most directly affect general educational goals, allocation of resources, coordination and implementation of programs, response to community needs and community interaction (McKeon & Malarz, 1991). This requires that along with the right to choose and set policy, teachers take seriously the responsibility they concomitantly acquire to be informed decision makers. With regard to the education of language minority students, this means that teachers need not only know about first and second language acquisition but must also be able to critically analyze the merits or flaws of existing programs. Specifically, with regard to English as a second language instruction, this requires a hard look

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at how we have arrived at some of the dismal policies affecting the achievement and English language development of linguistically diverse students (RAND Corp., 1991).

Although the issues in this paper may be familiar to most readers, for the most part they do not tend to be familiar to the majority of the general education community at large. The shift of responsibility for program development and implementation to a broader segment of this educational community requires that those who are knowledgeable and concerned with language minority issues be able to clearly articulate program necessities. This makes it critical to revisit and carefully review the basic premises and knowledge base developed regarding second language acquisition in order to ensure that the essential nature of second language learning does not disappear within the pragmatic concerns of reorganizing and reconceptualizing school structures.

Although this paper is primarily about English second language development, the issues discussed are addressed to both bilingual and monolingual English teachers. The paper is organized around five critical policy issues that have evolved in ESL program planning and implementation over the past decade. The faulty assumptions that are reflected in these issues and that have contributed to the fragmentation and limited success of these programs will be discussed. A theme which will recur throughout this paper is that English as a second language instruction is not considered *basic education* within our school systems. This position ultimately weakens the effectiveness of ESL programs, severely impeding the effectiveness of most ESL instructional efforts.

ESL: a stepchild in the curriculum

Despite the rhetoric that has been generated about the necessity for all Americans to speak English—passage of English-only legislation and virulent attacks on primary language use and instruction (Peterson, 1989; Porter, 1990)—school programs for the developement of English language skills for language diverse students continue to be woefully inadequate (Fradd & Weismantel, 1989; National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1988). Blame for the low levels of English proficiency believed to exist in language minority communities continues to be ascribed to bilingual educators, who by advocating bilingual instruction, as the rhetoric goes, have limited English language opportunities. Blame also goes to the non-English speaking/bilingual communities, who are accused of not caring enough and shirking their civic responsibility to develop English in their communities. This rhetoric continues to be a prevalent and

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convenient smokescreen for the poor performance of many school systems in providing for the education of language minority students.

As indicated above, undermining most ESL programs within districts is the fundamental attitude that ESL instruction is supplemental and somewhat incidental. This attitude is highlighted in the following example. In an effort to consolidate services, two school districts recently developed ESL centers. Their rationale for developing these services was to consolidate resources in an attempt to provide less fragmented services to limited English proficient students. However, parents who did not want their children transported to these centers were allowed to waive ESL services. Rather than recognizing English as a second language development as a basic responsibility and curricular area that must be addressed for all students with limited English proficiency, this policy reflects the extent to which schools take language for granted. Offering ESL as a choice to parents is equivalent to a district creating a center for the learning of reading and allowing parents to waive their child's literacy instruction. How is learning English less basic? The attitude that ESL is supplemental surfaces again and again in examples of staffing, time allocation, and integration of ESL into the curriculum, issues which will be discussed below.

In the above example the school district was trying to address the need for better program implementation, even though their fundamental assumption regarding the importance of second language instruction ultimately may leave many students unserved. Such policies contribute to perpetuating the extraordinary statistics of *nonserved* language minority students which have been reported in the literature. Approximately 85% of eligible students receive no services (either bilingual or ESL) at all (National Council of La Raza, 1985; Olson, 1986). These statistics point to a lack of concern on the part of educational systems to improve the learning situation of second language students—all rhetoric aside.

Even when students do receive ESL services, the level and quality of these services are often questionable. Several additional faulty assumptions have continued to guide language development instructional policies, affecting decisions regarding the design of ESL programs and ultimately weakening their effectiveness. They include such notions as the following: (a) Minimal support leads to development of language skills sufficient for academic success; (b) if content is repeated often enough it will eventually be understood; and (c) if there is a lot of talk in the classroom environment students are automatically insured of language development. Although addressed and debunked in studies reviewed by Wong-Fillmore & Valadez (1986) and others, these attitudes still persist in schools.

ESL services also tend to be limited in scope and to reflect a great deal of variability in quality and allotment of instructional time across programs even within a single district (National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1988). They traditionally last only one or two years and offer limited daily instructional time (Nadeau & Miramontes, 1988); have restricted content which is often not linked to the content of the students' other educational activities (Chamot & O'Malley, 1989; Berman, *et al.*, 1992); are inadequately monitored; and, are often taught by tutors or paraprofessionals with minimal training (National Forum on Personnel Needs, 1990). These conditions give rise to four additional issues that must be addressed if ESL programs are to improve. These issues are discussed below.

Issue 1: What is ESL, really?

In order to address some of the most deleterious assumptions with regard to ESL instruction, a common base of understanding needs to be developed and shared within a site-based decision-making setting if sound educational decisions are the goal. As indicated, there is a lack of clarity as well as many misunderstandings about what ESL is and what it is intended to accomplish. Figure 1 presents some basic premises reflecting essential areas which might govern the design and implementation of ESL programs. They are presented in juxtaposition to some current interpretations of ESL in order to emphasize their unique nature.

Each of the premises reflecting what ESL is has particular implications for the kinds of issues that must be understood and negotiated within a system of participatory management if language minority students are to be adequately served within a school community. Premises regarding what ESL is not reflect faulty assumptions which often dictate the level of services.

For a school moving toward site-based management, clear distinctions about the nature of ESL must be determined and used to maintain the integrity of English development for second language learners. They must be used during the restructuring process to guide decision making with regard to instruction and to prevent the reshuffling of the school configurations to reflect only structural rather than instructional shifts.

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Figure 1. Basic premises for English as a Second language instruction[1].

WHAT ESL IS	WHAT ESL IS NOT
•essential language development for L2 speakers	•special or remedial education
•planned, daily instruction for second language acquisition	•just being in an all-English environment
•separate instruction time when L2 learners have the opportunity to express themselves	•an instructional time when L2 learners have to compete with fluent English speakers in order to participate
•second language development through comprehensible content area instruction	•simply language arts for native English speakers
•sequential, strategic curriculum delivery using ESL methodologies	•tutoring
•communication-based	•grammar-based
•teaching English to L2 students, which may include multicultural perspectives	•multicultural education
•incorporating multicultural aspects	•an assimilation program
•an essential, integral part of the students' academic program	•supplemental
•coordinated with, and reinforced by, the classroom teacher at the elementary level	•an isolated language learning program
•a program whose implementation is the responsibility of certified personnel with ESL training	•the responsibility of para-professional personnel
•the provision of English language support in the transition from explicit ESL instruction to modified classroom curriculum	•not abrupt cessation of English language support

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[1] Developed with L. Widger-Aliro, M. Carr, M. Olguin, A. Prant, D. Lester, and G. Trapp.

Issue 2: ESL's role in the broader curriculum

In site-based schemes school staff assume a major responsibility for determining the direction of the curriculum. Therefore, they need to assess the interaction and impact of particular curricular strategies on English as a second language development. Two curriculum change movements are presently having a significant impact on the implementation of ESL instruction: (a) the movement toward process oriented approaches to instruction; and (b) the movement toward development of more cooperative, integrative classroom settings.

(a) *Structure vs. process*. Certainly, although approaches such as whole language for reading and cooperative learning strategies for social studies and science have opened many opportunities for students to experience a broader and more meaningful interaction with learning, they have also raised questions and concerns among teachers with relation to their role in direct, intentional, mediated instruction. For example, because these philosophies and strategies for instruction are difficult to implement masterfully, many teachers are unsure of their role regarding students' instruction and as a result are hesitant to exert their role as teacher for fear of interrupting the process. Peer interaction is often the default position, regardless of quality. The lack of balance between the basic orientations of process vs. direct instruction, student vs. teacher input, and unstructured vs. structured time have caused critics to question the loss of access some children will have to more directed, specific interactions with teachers. For example, as Delpit (1989) and others have argued, it is often important to make explicit the aims and rules of instruction (the hidden curriculum), particularly for children who have little experience with the implicit culture of classrooms. And, although excited by the possibilities these process strategies provide, many teachers themselves worry about how students will learn the basic skills they need.

Process approaches have also tended to make many teachers reluctant to structure time for specific activities such as ESL (a phenomenon particularly prevalent although by no means unique to bilingual classes). Instead, the fact that English is used in the setting is considered to be sufficient. As the reasoning goes, either plenty of English is used, particularly with peers, so that students will pick up the language, or students are considered to be in a bilingual setting, so they'll understand (*i.e.*, it can be translated for them). In the first case, it is extremely difficult to understand how this position is different from the sink or swim position so soundly refuted by experience and research (Krashen, 1983,

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1986; Cummins, 1984). In the second case, using one language to mediate the other is a poor strategy for developing a sophisticated use of either language (Wong-Fillmore, 1986). Nevertheless, throughout the educational system these faulty assumptions persist.

(b) *Integrating ESL into regular classroom activities.* Schools involved in reform are generally actively seeking to develop new patterns of interaction between and among students and teachers. As discussed above, ESL programs generally have been conducted on a pull-out basis and lack coherence with regular classroom activities. There has long been an obvious need to link ESL curriculum to the content and activity of the classroom (Chamot & O'Malley, 1989).

And yet, adopting a policy which completely integrates LEP students into the regular classroom often becomes a double edged sword. Although total separation from the regular program is a distinct limitation of all specialized programs (Allington, 1991), totally assimilating ESL into the regular classroom program can (though need not) result in a default to submersion with no special attention given to specific linguistic interactions and elaboration of the ability to use English for academic content. The process approaches as well as movements toward integrating curriculum often blur the line between the necessity to address specific needs and the drive never to place students in homogeneous groups for special instruction. In fact, they are often perceived to be competing objectives.

Because the tendency in classrooms is toward directing instruction at the level of the native English speaker, much of what is being communicated in a classroom may not be fully comprehensible to the limited English proficient student (Krashen, 1984). Consequently, many language minority students miss a great deal of information and can also become inhibited from fully expressing themselves in situations where they must compete constantly with those more proficient than themselves.

This sense of timidity can be intensified when there is not a critical mass of language minority students within the classroom setting. Policies which encourage diffusing the language minority population throughout the school, while giving the broader school population the opportunity to interact with children of different language and cultural backgrounds, often diffuses the instructional efforts to address more specifically the needs of the language minority child. This is tantamount to making minority children a part of other children's curriculum, sometimes at the expense of their own development.

Eliminating small, homogeneous groups which may be one of the few settings in which limited English proficient students can comfortably play with language,

practice their second language in a safe environment, and develop their English proficiency in a noncompetitive setting, severely restricts their overall opportunities for English language development. The result is often little proficiency in expressing themselves on academic subjects (Commins & Miramontes, 1989). Eventually this takes its toll in other areas such as written expression. Carlos, in the following example, is a child for whom total integration has yielded limited understanding. Carlos is in a school that focuses a great deal of attention on experiential learning. The environment is full of wonderful materials. In one corner a group is putting together a chicken skeleton, in another the students are labeling the bones in the body using a model they have made, and in another a child is reading a story to several of her classmates. Carlos moves from group to group, but most of the conversations move too quickly for him. He can usually understand what the teacher is trying to get across but usually only points or nods in reply. When he goes home he tells his mother about the general nature of the activities, but he does not remember the specific words for the different topics he has heard about in class. He does not know how to say femur, knuckles, etc. Although the environment is rich in language, much of it is inaccessible to Carlos because he does not understand a great deal of what is being communicated. In addition, he finds it difficult to express himself when conversations move quickly. Carlos' case presents an example of how integration can become submersion and raises a dilemma with regard to whether students should ever be homogeneously grouped.

Given the negative findings on tracking which has been particularly harmful to minority students (Oaken, 1985), caution must be exercised in planning instructional groups. However, there are multiple ways of grouping students throughout a day, throughout an instructional sequence, and throughout theme cycles which balance special needs with integrative experiences.

Issues raised by the discussion of structure vs. process as well as the integration of both children and curriculum movements highlight the fact that schools as institutions and students as individuals sometimes have competing needs that must be balanced. Rather than throwing them both out, a balance needs to be struck between grouping for specific purposes and integrating students. This balance is dependent on a school staff developing an understanding of what is *unique* about second language instruction—that is, what types of opportunities need to be provided, what level of development and proficiency must be attained in order to successfully achieve academically, and what it takes to achieve this proficiency. In this respect, ESL is not simply the use of specific methodologies but also includes those methodologies used in particular contexts. It can also be thought of as learning to function effectively in English across a

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variety of situations. ESL exists primarily within situational interactions—opportunities to try English skills in a nonthreatening, noncompetitive environment; opportunities to rely solely on their second language understanding; opportunities to articulate academic ideas that will need to be intellectually defended and supported; opportunities to learn to read and write; and opportunities for social language interactions. School instructional policies which disregard the need to balance competing needs will not enhance learning for second language students.

This brings us back to the idea that the level at which students will need to function across settings must be assessed in relationship to the demands that will be placed on them—the types of proficiency that the school expects for academic success and that their bilingual as well as monolingual communities require for social and affective success (Zentalla, 1988). For example, social oral proficiency alone is not sufficient because literacy is necessary for a variety of forms of success; literacy without social oral proficiency, on the other hand, is not sufficient because of the need to communicate orally at school, in jobs, and socially in *both* communities. Students then, must be able to engage in the types of activities that will produce success in the variety of settings in which they will be required to perform.

Issue 3: Special funding dictating pedagogy

Under site-based management, school staff have more say in the way resources are distributed and used within a school. Staff make judgements about what programs and instructional strategies are most important to develop and maintain. Although some categorical funding will continue to be targeted for particular programs, it will be important for schools to examine the damaging tendency to allow special funding to dictate pedagogy. For example, pressures to maintain the criteria for movement of students out of ESL at minimal levels persist in most school districts. Although research evidence indicates that it takes five years or more for students with limited English proficiency to achieve academic proficiency in English (Cummins, 1981; Collier, 1989), services for those students who receive them are typically only funded for two to three years (Nadeau & Miramontes, 1988). Therefore, criteria for termination of services are often reduced to the minimum time that state funding for such services is provided. Aside from the fact that students may not have had sufficient time to develop academic proficiency in English which would allow them to be able to deal successfully with a broad variety of content, movement out of ESL

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programs leaves general education teachers believing that students are "fixed," and are ready to perform just like native English speakers. Such assumptions set into motion a chain of perceptions that can limit opportunities for language minority students.

Since most general education teachers have had only minimal (if any) exposure to second language acquisition requirements and methodologies, it is perhaps not extraordinary that they interpret termination of ESL services this way (Urzua, 1989). In addition, since program planning for ESL students is generally handled outside of the classroom, discussions among staff rarely focus on the role of general education teachers in ESL. Therefore, the need for specific support systems within the classroom is not highlighted, and the fact that classroom teacher involvement and support should actually intensify *after* ESL services are terminated, is not discussed. Classroom teachers do not recognize the critical role they need to play in the continued linguistic development of second language learners (Rigg & Allen, 1989). Transitions to all-English instruction with support rarely occur, and instead students may find themselves from one day to the next receiving instruction and competing for grades as if they were native English speakers (Shannon, 1991).

A minimalist approach to second language needs tends to maintain and reinforce additional faulty assumptions such as the belief that with 30-60 minutes of English language instruction per day ESL students should be able to acquire and use English at a level of proficiency similar to that of native speakers. At the same time, of course, they are also expected to learn all new content through this second language.

The allocation of resources function of site-based management teams has the potential for changing the short-sighted, negative policies of allowing legislative funding to dictate instructional programs. School policies can be changed to reflect pedagogical understandings of second language acquisition not simply to reflect legislative resource allocations. This means that ESL instruction would be supported and reinforced throughout the LEP students' curriculum to promote attainment of academic goals, and that general education teachers with ESL students in their classes would use second language strategies in their instruction. This of course will be seen as increasingly difficult to accomplish in an era of shrinking resources. Reorganization is certainly no guarantee of positive and effective change, since its success depends directly on the composition, knowledge, orientation, and collaboration of the school staff. However, creative solutions which use resources more effectively can emerge out of restructuring schools and coordinating school programs.

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Issue 4: The general educator's responsibility in ESL

Present policies in schools of education which exclude ESL instruction as part of the required knowledge base for new teachers to teach successfully and district requirements for employment that fail to include a background in first and second language acquisition also serve to reinforce the idea that English second language development is not basic education. Such policies significantly impede the sharing of responsibility for ESL instruction within school sites. Goal setting and coordination of programs, however, is an important function of site based teams. As a community of professional educators, staff in such schools are specifically charged with the responsibility for making decisions with regard to the most effective progress for children within their community. Schools that participate in site-based decision making, therefore, have increased possibilities of linking and articulating student programs across grades.

Traditionally, a major limiting factor for the development of English language proficiency for limited English proficient students has been that ESL programs have tended to be understaffed, with students frequently receiving a majority of their instruction from paraprofessionals (National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1988). The consequences of such policies have been limited and fragmented second language acquisition experiences for students. Although well intentioned, paraprofessionals too often lack the training and skills necessary to design and implement instruction for language and literacy development (California State Department of Education, 1984). When ESL instruction is not coordinated with and reinforced by the classroom teachers, teachers are not able to follow the LEP students' progress, they may engage in very little direct instruction with these students, and in general they may have little contact with them.

When students have limited access to the teachers, they are less likely to encounter the notions of language development as expanding the capability to articulate arguments clearly, as a vehicle for learning to analyze ideas, and as an expression of meaning. Disconnecting teachers from the learning of limited English proficient students therefore creates a lack of appreciation for student growth, diminishes understanding of what the student needs, and can foster a sense of helplessness on the part of the teacher toward a student. The sense of responsibility for student instruction is undermined when teachers feel that student needs are being better met elsewhere.

The cummulative effect of inadequate language support over time has been devastating for many Latino students. The consequence of the combination of

limited support and lack of development in English second language skills has been that limited English proficient students are often promptly placed in remedial reading (with all its attendant stigmas) when ESL services terminate. For example, Juan had been in ESL for two years. He was a lively and talkative youngster, communicated well with his classmates, and made great progress. His classroom teacher felt that it was time for him to participate more fully in his classroom, and she reported that he enjoyed taking reading books home to share with his mother. At the time, his ESL teacher had informally invited Juan to share those books with her, and although he was able to tell a story about the pictures, he was able to read only a very few words. Nevertheless, his oral proficiency was much better than most of the other students in her ESL class.

It was decided that Juan was ready to move out of ESL. He was placed in the low reading group in his classroom, with great hopes that he would be able to move to a higher level within a few months. As time passed, however, his teacher was disappointed by his inability to catch on to the stories he was reading. His oral reading was slow and halting, and he often seemed confused. It was decided that Juan needed special help with reading, and he was accepted for remedial reading with the reading specialist. Although Juan began to progress slowly with special help focused on phonetic instruction and repetition, his teachers felt they had misjudged his ability to succeed. They wondered if, perhaps, he might have a learning disability which was hindering his progress.

Without clear communication and articulation among programs about second language issues within a school, teachers of remedial reading often function under the faulty assumption that students have received adequate exposure to and practice with English (otherwise the child would be in ESL) and that an appropriate developmental sequence of instruction has been used in their reading instruction. They then proceed to use a remedial approach because they believe that the students have not succeeded even though they have been provided with an adequate opportunity to learn to read. The problems attendant to remedial reading programs become the determiners of the next phase of many linguistically diverse students' education. Disconnected pull-out services become the norm, and reductionist curricula often further limit their opportunities to develop more advanced skills in English (Diaz, 1986). Consequently, language minority students move into their own track, a track many students never leave. It often includes various sorts of remediation and may eventually lead to special education placement (Ortiz & Maldonado, 1986; Miramontes, 1988).

This cycle is no doubt also familiar to most readers. It occurs when little or no effort is made to support language minority students as they work to develop the ability to deal with all content, across all areas of the curriculum in the same

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fashion as a native English speaker. These students usually find themselves alone in their struggle to negotiate the curriculum, and it is perhaps not surprising that so many give up the fight. Readers may recognize such students as those labelled by many educators as "mixed-dominant" and ascribed poor conceptual skills (Commins & Miramontes, 1989; Ruiz, 1989; Trueba, 1989). Until there is a broader understanding and acceptance of what it takes to become academically proficient in a second language and to live successfully in bilingual communities, and until second language support is coordinated across academic contexts over time, the toll will continue.

Site-based approaches have the potential for creating learning communities where there is true shared responsibility for student instruction throughout the school and for counteracting policies which isolate instruction for language minority students. A school that understands and is working closely with its community would be expected to take a more comprehensive approach to the development of students' academic skills over time. Criteria for terminating support services for second language learners can be made more congruent with the performance expected of students across academic contexts.

Summary and Conclusions

Reform efforts, particularly those focused on site-based management approaches have the potential to improve awareness, cooperation, and instructional programs within schools and to stimulate greater parent and community involvement. On the other hand greater individual school autonomy presents the potential for further fragmenting efforts and resources for language minority students if the requirements for student learning are not more broadly understood by the staff.

What are the implications of this changing social and management structure within schools for English second language instruction? First it will be critical for all school staff to understand what aspects of ESL instruction can and cannot be traded off structurally if students are to succeed academically in English. Second, instructional programs need to be strengthened.

The following can be considered a partial checklist of factors that need to be addressed as a school staff work through their reorganization process.

1. Policies which clearly define the nature of ESL services must be explicitly articulated in order to clarify instructional goals and intended outcomes and to guide the restructuring of programs for LEP students.
2. Congruence between a school's goals for its limited English proficient

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students and the experiences and instruction it provides for them must be examined and critically evaluated.

3. A careful examination of the assumptions and values reflected in existing English second language instructional policies must be conducted, particularly as they reflect the current knowledge base in research and practice.

4. The roles of individuals within the total school program must be re-examined and redefined in relation to second language learning.

5. Differences between ESL and remedial reading instructional programs—in terms of criteria for establishing need, differences in learners' background, and differences in approach for first and second language speakers—must be generally understood throughout the school.

6. Policies and rhetoric which divide ethnic and linguistic communities and staff must be discouraged and replaced.

7. Policies which support consideration of remedial reading as the backup support for language minority student must also be eliminated.

8. Paths which lead students directly from ESL to remedial services must be identified and eliminated.

9. Schemes for integrating language minority students into the curriculum that merely include these students physically in activities without adaptions for comprehension must not be allowed.

10. Policies which deny the need for grouping and intentional instruction that provides second language speakers a safe, nonthreatening, noncompetitive setting in which to practice and explore second language learning must be examined. Finding creative and positive ways of balancing groupings and types of instruction for particular needs should to be given a high priority.

11. Policies which reflect expectations that general education teachers should play an active role in second language instruction must be developed and made explicit across educational institutions.

12. Policies that promote the inclusion of students' language, values, and culture so that a bilingual child's languages do not become an either/or proposition must be implemented.

13. Finally, the recognition needs to be developed that children who live in bilingual homes will always have need for their bilingualism, and that they may experience language differently than monolinguals making it critical to foster connections.

If all this sounds like what we should already be doing, it is. But we aren't. And, if there is to be any chance that real changes in instructional practices for language minority students are to result from school reform, we cannot expect to see improvements until the same old problems are met head on. New words

will not change reality, and the pitfalls that restructuring movements present must be examined.

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Turning the Promise of MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION into Practice

Photo by Lloyd Wolf © 1993

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In no single segment of our society is the challenge to balance the multicultural diversity more evident than in our public schools.

Our schools are a microcosm of the "everything American" phenomenon, carrying with that the tremendous pressure to address complex issues evolving from this pluralism.

As communities and educational leaders ponder the wisdom of multicultural education, our schools feel the impact. Every day that bureaucrats and educrats wrestle with this issue, the results become more evident. Each day the issue is ignored, a disproportionate rate of African American males will fail, be suspended, or drop out of school. Youth gangs of differing cultures will go to war on school playgrounds and in school corridors.

The role of African Americans, Hispanics, and Asians in American history and the true story of Native Americans will continue to go untold. We will awaken to find that the graduating class in the year 2000 has lost its cultural heritage and with that the respect for one other.

The public schools legally, morally, and willingly welcome everyone, and here the challenge of maintaining the richness of cultural diversity will be won or lost in the 1990s. With commitment, planning, and collaboration, this could well be the decade in which the promise of multicultural education will be fulfilled.

Revamped Curriculum

The restructuring should consist of curriculum revisions, textbook selection, curriculum strands, curriculum activities, and new course requirements.

- *Curriculum revisions.* As new curriculum guides are developed, they should be driven with attention to a multicultural perspective on what is included. No literature course should be accepted without a thorough understanding of African American contributions; no American history course revised without correcting the historical legacy of the true Native American; no history of the world course produced without a balance of the non-Western cultural perspective; and no course published without a proper perspective of women throughout history.

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- *Textbook selection.* As the curriculum is revised and rewritten, it will become abundantly clear that textbooks used to reinforce the curriculum will be out of sync with the new curriculum.

Each textbook being considered should be scrutinized to determine whether there is a balanced, cultural perspective that is philosophically consistent with the district, and whether the textbook is closely aligned to the curriculum guide.

• *Curriculum strands.* If we look at curriculum as the fabric of what we teach, then it is the multicultural curriculum strands that must be woven into this fabric. Strengthening the existing curriculum, these strands add color, variety, and freshness to all we teach.

As new curriculum guides and programs of study are developed, there should be a conscious development of multicultural strands interspersed across the curriculum as a lasting commitment to cultural diversity. Only when the curriculum strands can be identified should the guide be approved as meeting the standards for the district.

• *Curriculum activities.* Understanding cultural differences is about understanding people: their behavior, their ceremonies and celebrations, heritage, and tradition.

Photo by Frances Wardle © 1993

"...cultural diversity will be won or lost in the 1990s."

As such, the study of multicultural education must involve all of the senses that are part of a living history. The foods, dances, ceremonies, and songs of a culture make it come alive, and through exposure to those we can develop an appreciation for another culture's arts, values, and traditions.

This living culture is the vital way we pass our culture on to the next generation. Those are lessons that cannot be learned from a textbook and teacher, but must come from active learning. Activities that make the curriculum and culture come alive must be a necessary part of the curriculum.

• *New course requirements.* Educational systems reflect the value and importance they place on subjects by making them either required or elective. Students and the community learn very quickly what is considered important.

By requiring the "3 R's," schools let everyone know basic skills are important. A required course on the subject of multicultural education, therefore, would state clearly that the understanding of and sensitivity to other cultures is not an elective that students can choose or ignore. It is a requirement of life in the rapidly changing, multicultural society in which they live.

Cadre Building

You can attend to this through diversity in staffing, teaching strategies, and retraining for all school staff.

• *Diversity in staffing.* Look around the typical classroom in urban America and you would think you're in the United Nations School.

But visit that same school during faculty meetings and in all likelihood you will not see that same mix. The teaching profession is losing ground in its own diversity. Fewer minority and other ethnic group teachers are entering the neighborhood schools. As population shifts in school districts and neighborhood schools, so, too, should the staffing. Teachers—especially good teachers—will be drawn to a district that is committed to multicultural education, a district that woos them for their professionalism and special value they have to the district.

Districts also must recruit within their school systems. Attracting the best and brightest to the schools that offer the most challenge can be seen as highly valued by the community.

• *Teaching strategies.* Along with aggressive recruitment as part of the solution is teacher retraining. For the vast majority of new teachers, the changing population in their classrooms is a relatively new phenomenon. For that same teaching staff, the teaching strategies that worked at one time are no longer successful.

A multicultural classroom needs a teacher who is aware of the cultural differences that affect learning styles, behavior, mannerisms, and relationships with school and home.

For most teachers, these are lessons never taught at college in Teaching 101. Teaching and learning can be enhanced through a committed effort to develop new teaching strategies that build upon cultural diversity, learning style, and individual differences.

• *Retraining for all.* The classroom is only a part of the students' school life. The more casual instructional time of the day takes place in the cafeteria, on the fields, in the hallways, and on the bus.

The adults in these areas touch the lives of students daily. It is vital that all staff members engage in staff development activities relative to multicultural difference. The bus driver, cafeteria worker, day porter, and sec-

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retary all need to be part of the school commitment to multicultural education.

Offering Incentives

Incentives for enhancing multicultural understanding include the study of foreign languages, community involvement, and cultural celebrations.

- *Learning a second language.* In a more culturally diverse school district, half the population speaks a second language and, for many, their primary language at home is not English. Teachers who gain even a conversational background in the primary second language of their community find themselves with an additional asset in the classroom and a link with parents. It can be the bridge between teacher and student, and student and home.

Teachers need to be encouraged and rewarded by the district for the value this piece plays in the multicultural puzzle. Paying for courses, bonuses for demonstrated proficiency, and special recognition are examples of encouragement and incentives.

- *Living in the community.* What better way to learn about the people with whom you teach 185 days a year than to live in their community. The absence of the neighborhood school teacher within the community sends a message that may have different cultural meanings.

Teachers can be encouraged to live in the community in which they teach through various cooperative incentives of school and community. Ask the public service companies to waive deposit requirements. Ask rental agencies to offer a free month's rent or no security deposit. Offer membership in a local athletic club or fitness center to draw educators to the community.

- *Involvement in the community.* Living in the community is not always a possibility for all teachers, but a greater involvement in the community certainly is. So much can be learned from a visit to an AME Church, a Latin festival, Chinese New Year, or the blessing of the fleet. These events are celebrations not only of the community but of the culture that makes up that community.

An awareness of community events helps the teacher to understand better the people and their roots. To understand one's culture is to hold a key to open one more door in the multicultural world in which we live and teach.

- *Celebrating cultural events.* Another way to share in the multicultural diversity of a community is to celebrate its cultural events. Schools and parent-teacher associations should work together to bring the community together during these cultural celebrations.

Teachers also should be encouraged to organize cultural events in their classrooms. These activities should not be seen as frivolous but as integral parts of their commitment to multicultural learning activities that develop cultural awareness and sensitivity.

Fostering Partners

Multicultural approaches can be enhanced through collaborations with parents, community businesses, churches, and neighboring schools.

- *Parent partnerships.* The role of parents in the schools is changing rapidly. In multicultural school districts this change process is essential to the changing role that schools play in multicultural education.

The parent role in the "at-home" curriculum is to work in partnership with the school in educating the total child. Schools must welcome the parent as partner and be sensitive to the family situation in today's rapidly changing society.

Providing mentors or role models to fill the void for many males in our schools could be a first step in helping the parenting process and reaffirming the role of parents as partners in reinforcing learning at home and staying in school. Finally, the schools need to become the educational center for parenting programs.

- *Business partnerships.* The timing could not be better for schools to reenter partnerships with businesses in a new venture, partners in multicultural education.

Schools can help businesses provide literacy, English as a second language, and diploma programs for their employees. Businesses can encourage parents to get involved in schools, to encourage and support education at home, and to raise their expectations for their children. Parents become better workers when they realize their employers understand them, their cultural needs, and how all that fits into the family and education.

- *Religious partnerships.* In many communities, houses of worship remain the focal point for unifying the community and providing strength and support. Through these institutions, education is valued, and staying in school is considered a virtue. They share the school's mission.

Houses of worship are one way to extend school learning into the home. The message that education is a way of improving one's lot in life can be strengthened when that message is reinforced at home and again at weekend religious services.

- *School to school partnerships.* In multicultural districts, school populations in one part of the community have little in common with schools across town. Culturally different, they lack an understanding of each other which often leads to confusion, prejudice, and fear.

The best way to alleviate fear of the unfamiliar is through education and communication. Partnering schools of differing demographics and cultures can be the first step. Teachers, students, and parent groups visiting and working together, exchanging ideas and socializing can be the next step to breaking down barriers within the school system.

Dramatic Departure

The development of a lifelong commitment to the education of a multicultural society is not a passing educational fad nor a matter of political expediency. It means changing the very way we educate. It's not educating just for today, but educating for the 21st century.

In short, multicultural education in many respects is a dramatic departure for school districts from what they are to what they ought to be. It would be misleading to suggest a metamorphosis will occur just by following some simple steps in curriculum development and minimal multicultural awareness.

Multicultural understanding will require much more than a plan. It will require people working together, joining hands, and sharing in a collaborative effort unlike anything we have seen in public education.

TESOL Statement on the Education of K-12 Language Minority Students in the United States

The population of ethnolinguistically diverse students in the primary and secondary schools of the United States has grown dramatically. So dramatically, in fact, that language minority students are for the first time the majority of students in many school districts. In order for the United States to take advantage of the great cultural and linguistic diversity brought by our language minority students to the United States and its schools, we must first recognize this diversity as a national resource.

We must also recognize, however, that students come from a variety of backgrounds and circumstances. Some are immigrants, some are refugees, while others are native born Americans of different language heritages. These students enter US schools with a variety of educational experiences. Some have received extensive formal education in their home countries and are on grade level in all content areas and in reading their first language. Others have had their edoucation delayed or interrupted and may be academically behind their peers in the U.S. and their countries of origin.

To meet the needs of such students, TESOL supports programs which promote students' growth in English language proficiency, enhance cognitive growth, facilitate academic achievement, and encourage cultural and social adjustment. Such programs include:

- comprehensive English as a Second Language instruction for linguistically diverse students which prepares them to handle content area material in English.
- instruction in the content areas which is academically challenging, but also is tailored to the linguistic proficiency, educational background and academic needs of students.
- opportunities for students to further develop and/or use their first language in order to promote academic and social development.
- professional development opportunities for both ESOL and other classroom teachers which prepare them to facilitate the language and academic growth of linguistically and culturally different children.

TESOL Standards: Ensuring Access to Quality Educational Experiences for Language Minority Students

Language minority students are those students who learned a language other than English as their first language. These students may be immigrants, refugees, or native born Americans. They may come to school with extensive formal education or they may be academically delayed or illiterate in their first language. Such students arrive at school with varying degrees of English proficiency. Some may not speak English at all; others may speak English, but need assistance in reading or writing English.

Whatever the case, it is clear that schools that hope to help these students meet the National Education Goals must provide special assistance to them. While the type of special assistance may vary from one district or school to another, all special assistance programs must give language minority students full access to the learning environment, the curriculum, special services and assessment in a meaningful way.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) offers the following standards of access to help schools judge the degree to which programs of special assistance are helping language minority students to meet the National Education Goals. The standards have been developed by the TESOL Task Force on the Education of Language Minority Students, K-12, in the US. They are based on the most current research on language learning in academic settings.

Access to a Positive Learning Environment

1. Are the schools attended by language minority students safe, attractive, and free of prejudice?
2. Is there evidence of a positive whole-school environment whose administrative and instructional policies and practices create a climate that is characterized by high expectations as well as linguistically and culturally appropriate learning experiences for language minority students?
3. Are teachers, administrators, and other staff specifically prepared to tailor instructional and other services to the needs of language minority students?
4. Does the school environment welcome and encourage parents of language minority students as at-home primary teachers of their children and as partners in the life of the school? Does the school inform and educate parents and others concerned with the education of language minority students? Does the school systematically and regularly seek input from parents on information and decisions that affect all critical aspects of the education of language minority students, their schools and school districts?

Access to Appropriate Curriculum

Do language minority students have access to special instructional programs that support the second language development necessary to participate in the full range of instructional services offered to majority students?

6. Does the core curriculum designed for all students include those aspects that promote (a) the sharing, valuing, and development of both first and second languages and cultures among all students and (b) the higher order thinking skills required for learning across the curriculum?
7. Do language minority students have access to the instructional programs and related services that identify, conduct and support programs for special populations in a district? Such programs include, but are not limited to, early childhood programs, special education programs, and gifted and talented programs, as well as programs for students with handicapping conditions or disabilities, migrant education programs, programs for recent immigrants, and programs designed for students with low levels of literacy or mathematical skills, such as Chapter 1.

Access to Full Delivery of Services

8. Are the teaching strategies and instructional practices used with language minority students developmentally appropriate, attuned to students' language proficiencies and cognitive levels, and culturally supportive and relevant?
9. Do students have opportunities to develop and use their first language to promote academic and social development?
10. Are nonclassroom services and support services (such as counseling, career guidance, and transportation) available to language minority students?
11. Do language minority students have equal access to computers, computer classes and other technologically advanced instructional assistance?
12. Does the school have institutional policies and procedures that are linguistically and culturally sensitive to the particular needs of language minority students and their communities?
13. Does the school offer regular, nonstereotypical opportunities for native English-speaking students and language minority students to share and value one another's languages and cultures?

Access to Equitable Assessment

14. Do language minority students have access to broadly based methods of assessing language and academic achievement in the content areas that are appropriate to students' developmental level, age, and level of oral and written language proficiency in the first and second languages? Are these measures nonbiased and relevant? Are the results of such assessments explained to the community from which the student comes in the language which that community uses?
15. Do language minority students have access to broadly based methods of assessing special needs? Again, access is further defined by using measures that are nonbiased and relevant, the results of which are explained to the community from which the student comes and in the language which that community uses.

Horace, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 11-12.

4. Tom Bird and Judith Warren Little, "How Schools Organize the Teaching Profession," *Elementary School Journal*, vol. 86, 1986, p. 504.

5. Andrew L. Bundy and Don P. Pemberton, *Strategic Development Plan for the NEA National Center for Innovation and Learning Labs Initiative* (Washington, D.C.: NEA National Center for Innovation, 1991), p. 11.

6. Janet Baker et al., "How Schools Create Time," paper presented at the First International Symposium on Action Research, Vancouver, Washington, 1990.

7. R. J. Campbell, *Developing Primary Curriculum* (Eastbourne: Cassells, 1985).

8. Center on Organization and Restructuring Schools, "Collaborative Planning Time for Teachers," *Brief to Principals*, no. 2, 1992.

9. Lee E. Jacokes, *Finding Planning Time for School Improvement Activities: A Manual* (Wyoming, Mich.: Wyoming Public Schools, 1990).

10. Karen S. Louis and BetsAnn Smith, "Teacher Working Conditions," in Pedro Ryes, ed., *Teachers and Their Workplace* (Newbury Park, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1990), pp. 23-47.

11. Hargreaves, op. cit.; and Gunnar Handal, "Collective Time – Collective Practice?," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, 1991.

12. Hargreaves, p. 319. K

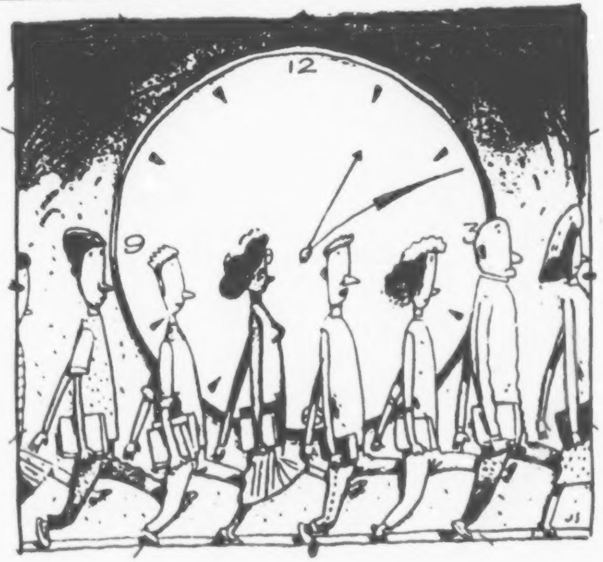
Unlocking the Lockstep High School Schedule

We must view a schedule not simply as a barrier blocking the path to school improvement, but as an untapped resource that can be drawn on to solve problems and implement needed programs, Messrs. Canady and Rettig point out.

BY ROBERT LYNN CANADY AND MICHAEL D. RETTIG

THE TRADITIONAL six- or seven-period schedule found in most American high schools is being subjected to intense scrutiny. Structures that were once thought to be unchangeable are beginning to undergo revision. Consider just a few of the possibilities that are now becoming reality in several of our nation's high schools.[1]

- Students and teachers can prepare for just three classes a semester rather than the typical five to seven.
- Students who quickly "get it" can move ahead; for example, a student could complete up to three consecutive math courses in one calendar year.
- Students can attend full-day vocational programs one day and academic programs the next.



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- Students can participate in the equivalent of a summer school session during the regular academic year.
- Students can perform community service during regular school hours without having that interfere with the academic program.
- Teachers can venture away from lecture and discussion to more productive models of teaching, in class sessions that are 90 to 120 minutes long.

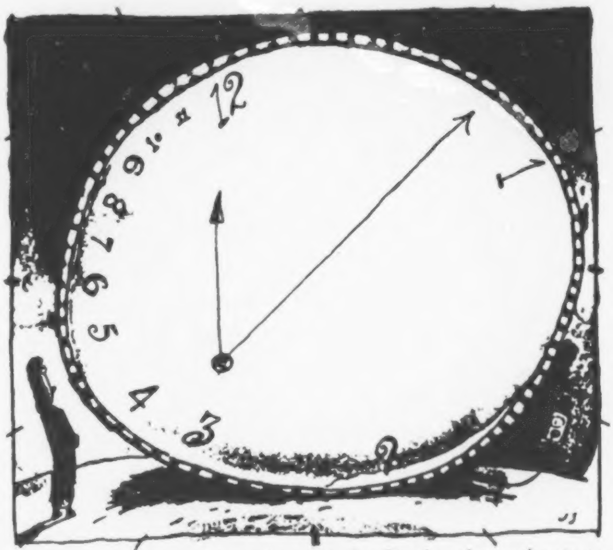
Surprisingly, each of these options is possible within the current financial and staffing constraints of most American high schools.

Our purpose in this article is to unlock the lockstep six- or seven-period high school schedule by offering practical alternatives. First we suggest a 75-75-30 plan – two 75-day terms in the fall and winter, followed by one 30-day spring term. The 75-75-30 plan was designed with the special problems of ninth-grade students in mind, but it can be adapted to other grade levels as well. Second, we describe an "alternate-day block schedule," which might serve as a first step toward eventual implementation of the 75-75-30 plan. We will analyze the benefits of each plan and suggest modifications that might be made.

THE 75-75-30 PLAN

For many students the transition from middle school to high school is a rough one. Districts report high rates of failure for ninth-grade students.[2] We have observed that many ninth-graders have difficulty preparing for six or seven different classes each day. Such problems prompted the invention of the following schedule, which addresses the particular needs of adolescents entering high school.

The school year is divided into three blocks of time – two 75-day terms (fall and winter) and a 30-day spring term. During each 75-day term the school day includes three 112-minute block classes, one 48-minute period (which remains constant for 180 days), 24 minutes for lunch, and 12 minutes for class changes, for a total of 420 minutes. We recommend that, during each of the 75-day terms, students enroll in two academic subjects and one of the following: physical education, one full-credit elective, or two half-credit electives. Each academic class is offered in double periods daily, as are physical education and full-credit electives. In addition, students may enroll in one "singleton" class, which meets for 48 minutes daily for the entire school year (see Table 1).[3] For example, in the fall a student assigned to a given instructional group might attend English for periods 1 and 2, physical education for periods 3 and 4, lunch and a singleton class such as band during the 5/L period (singleton 5 with lunch periods before and after), and math/algebra for periods 6 and 7. During the winter term the same instructional group participates in a full-credit or two half-credit electives for periods 1 and 2, science for periods 3 and 4, lunch and the yearlong singleton in the 5/L period, and social science for periods 6 and 7. A total of 12 minutes of passing time is provided between classes and/or blocks of time. If the school day must be shorter or if more time is needed for lunches or class changes, block classes could be reduced in length.



The 30-day spring term would offer students the chance to study one or two subjects intensively. During the spring term students might choose to intensify and accelerate their studies in a favorite discipline, repeat a failed course, enroll in two half-credit electives, or enroll in one full-credit elective. Students might also take part in community service projects.

Each block class taught during the 75-day term provides 8,400 minutes of instruction; 112 minutes per day for 75 days is approximately 180 traditional 47-minute class periods. A single-period elective meets for 4,050 minutes (54 minutes per day for 75 days) and counts for one-half of a unit. One full-credit course taken during the spring term meets for 8,400 minutes (five 56-minute periods for 30 days). Or a student might choose to devote the instructional time of the spring term to two half-credit electives. In addition, students continue to participate in the yearlong singleton course. One 54-minute period serves as a preparation time for teachers and allows for research, study, or early release for students.

One way to understand this model is to work through several "What ifs?"

TABLE 1.
75-75-30 Plan

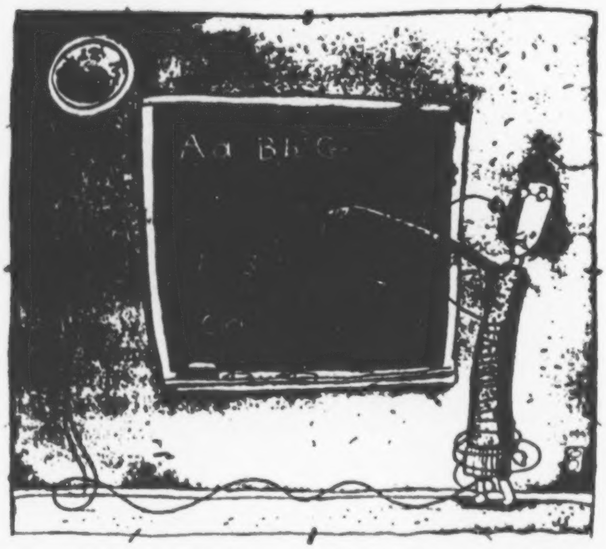
	Fall Term 75 Days	Winter Term 75 Days	Spring Term 30 Days
Block I (periods 1 & 2, 112 minutes)	English	Elective(s)	Elective or Community Service
Block II (periods 3 & 4, 112 minutes)	Physical Education	Science	
Period 5/L (48 minutes + 24 for lunch)	Band & Lunch	Band & Lunch	Band & Lunch
Block III (periods 6 & 7, 112 minutes)	Math	Social Science	Elective & Study

Illustrations by Jem Sullivan

If three class changes are eliminated each day, an hour of instructional time is gained each week.

What if a student wanted to accelerate in mathematics? The student could be assigned to one instructional group in the fall to complete one course and then be reassigned to a different group in the winter to complete the next course in sequence. Students scheduled for mathematics in the winter term could move ahead by completing the next course in the sequence during the spring term.

What if a student who took English in the fall term failed the class? The student could be assigned to repeat the subject in a new section of the course offered during the winter term; this class would be in lieu of an elective. During the winter term one teacher would be assigned to teach a section of English that could include repeaters. Another teacher would teach a section of mathematics that could also include repeaters from the fall term. A conscious effort should be made during the scheduling process to assign students who are at risk of failing either mathematics or English to sections of the course that are offered during the fall term. Students repeating classes could make up missed electives or a failed science or social studies course during the 30-day spring term.



What if a student transferred from a school that had been using a traditional six- or seven-period day? Transfer students could be assigned to an instructional group that follows a standard seven-period schedule. At least one section per core subject could be maintained to accommodate transfers, and the actual number of sections included would be adjusted, based on the school's recent statistical history of incoming transfer students. A different approach to the transfer problem might be to create an Instructional Resource Center staffed by an English/social science teacher and a math/science teacher and supported by appropriate computer hardware and software. The center would also employ a computer technician who would be available to assist both teachers and students. Individualized education programs including time assigned to the resource center could be designed for transfer students. A resource center would also prove advantageous to students who have missed school and need to catch up.

The 75-75-30 plan offers a number of benefits:

- *It facilitates variety in the use of instructional approaches.* Because teachers are granted longer blocks of instructional time, they are encouraged to break away from overreliance on lecture/discussion as the primary (often only) model of teaching. A math teacher might deliver direct instruction for 25 to 30 minutes, review concepts in cooperative learning groups, travel to the computer lab for reinforcement with appropriate software, and provide individual students with personalized reteaching, practice, or enrichment – all within the same block.
- *Students see fewer teachers each term, and teachers see fewer students.* By working with a smaller number of students each term, teachers have more opportunities to develop rapport and to identify students' strengths and weaknesses. Teachers can attend better to the needs of 60 to 80 students daily than they can to the needs of 120 to 160 students daily. Conversely, students must adjust less frequently to their teachers' differing styles of instruction and classroom management.
- *Discipline problems are reduced.* In most high schools, throngs of students are discharged into the hallways at the end of each period. This phenomenon creates a problem of supervision for school administrators and teachers because many discipline problems occur during these transitions. Because classes change less frequently in the block schedule, there are fewer opportunities for student misbehavior.
- *Instructional time is increased.* Research has shown that a great deal of instructional time is lost in secondary classrooms.[4] One study found that instructional activities accounted for an average of only 28 minutes (54.2%) of each 55-minute class period.[5] Two factors account for an increase in instructional time in the 75-75-30 plan. Most obviously, less class passing time is necessary. If three class changes of four minutes each are eliminated each day, an hour of instructional time is gained each week. When multiplied by a 36-week school year, more than a full week of instructional time is gained. In addition, there are fewer time-consuming class beginnings and endings. Reducing the number of class beginnings and endings is most important for classes that require considerable time for setup and cleanup, such as laboratory sciences, fine arts, technology classes, home economics, and physical education.[6]
- *Teachers and students are able to focus on fewer subjects.* Teachers have fewer preparations, and students have fewer homework assignments to juggle each evening.
- *"Summer school" can be offered to all students at no additional cost to the students or the school district.* Many school districts charge tuition for summer school and require students to pay for transportation. Consequently, many low-income students, who often need to attend summer school, cannot. This

Illustration by Jem Sullivan

plan provides the equivalent of a summer session as part of the regular school calendar: namely, the 30-day spring schedule. Because the spring session is within the time frame of standard teachers' contracts, no major additional expenses are incurred by the district.

- *Possibilities for acceleration are provided during the regular school year.* Conceivably, students can complete three consecutive courses in one calendar year; one course could be taken during each of the three terms.
- *Students can repeat a failed course during the regular school year.*[7] In traditionally scheduled high schools students must wait until summer or the beginning of the next school year to repeat a class. Thus, during the second term, many students who realize that it is mathematically impossible to pass a course stop working and become behavior problems. The 75-75-30 plan permits two possibilities for repeating courses during the regular school calendar: during the winter term and during the end-of-the-year spring term.

The 75-75-30 model was designed for an actual high school in which many ninth-grade students were failing English and/or mathematics. To provide greater opportunities for at-risk students to complete these courses, the English and mathematics classes were paired to make it possible to offer three opportunities during the regular school year for students to complete a course. Our preference, however, is to pair mathematics with science in one term and English with the social sciences in another.

One option, which may be advantageous to schools that offer traditional summer school opportunities for remediation and acceleration, is to place the spring term between the other two terms (75-30-75). Such an arrangement offers the advantage of providing students with an earlier opportunity to retake and complete a failed course and regain the pace of their classmates.

If the primary goal of the schedule were to facilitate the implementation of an outcomes-based education program, a three-week block of time could be placed at the end of each 75-day term (75-15-75-15). Such an arrangement would provide 15 days every term for remediation for those who had not completed one or more courses successfully. Enrichment activities, community service projects, and half-credit electives would be available to other students during these time periods. A variation of this plan could be implemented on the quarter system, with 40 days of instruction and five days for reteaching, remediation, retesting, and/or enrichment each quarter. Students would enroll in the same academic subjects during the first and third quarters and the second and fourth quarters to avoid instructional droughts that would last an entire semester.

ALTERNATE-DAY BLOCK SCHEDULE

A simpler way to free high schools from the tyranny of six or seven 50- to 60-minute periods is to move to an alternate-day block schedule. In this model it is possible to offer seven classes by conducting three double-block periods of 104 minutes on an alternate-day basis and one single-block period of 52 minutes every day.[8] For example, in a 410-minute school day, a particular student might attend double periods of English 10 (block I), French III (block II), and PE 10 (block IV) on day 1. On day 2 the student would attend double periods of geometry (block I), biology (block II), and fine arts II (block IV). During block III the student would have a single period of band each day. Block III is 30 minutes longer than a typical single period to facilitate two lunch periods – one at the beginning of the block and one at the end. Four minutes are provided between blocks for class changes. When holidays or teacher workdays intervene after day 1, the school simply operates on day 2 when school resumes.

Although this schedule eliminates the restructured terms of the 75-75-30 plan, it still offers many of the same advantages. Longer blocks of time encourage teachers to vary their instructional techniques. Students must attend and prepare for a maximum of four classes a day, and teachers never have more than three preparations daily. Increased instructional time and fewer discipline problems result from fewer class changes, class beginnings, and class endings.

In addition, the alternate-day block schedule offers financial and instructional benefits for vocational education programs. On day 1 vocational education students can be scheduled for their academic subjects; they can then spend all of day 2 at the vocational school. The school might realize a cost savings in transportation from such a schedule. One superintendent in South Carolina estimated that $100,000 in transportation expenses could be saved each year if the four high schools in his district moved to this plan. Also, students do not need to spend lengthy amounts of time riding the bus, cleaning up, and changing clothes.

Some instructors – specifically those in foreign languages, instrumental music, and sometimes mathematics – protest that daily instruction is necessary to provide an optimal program in their disciplines. One way to accommodate this need is by assigning such classes to block III, which meets daily. Another possibility involves running the traditional six- or seven-period schedule three days a week and double periods twice weekly. In this model every class meets four times weekly, with one of the four meetings being a double period (see Table 2). Such a compromise provides science, technology, and arts classes one double period each week to accomplish laboratory experiments or time-consuming projects. These longer blocks are scheduled on consecutive days (day 2 and day 3)

TABLE 2.
One Double Period Weekly

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5
Block I (104 minutes)	Per 1 Per 2	Per 1	Per 2	Per 1 Per 2	Per 1 Per 2
Block II (104 minutes)	Per 3 Per 4	Per 3	Per 4	Per 3 Per 4	Per 3 Per 4
Block III & Lunch (82 minutes)	Per 5	Per 5	Per 5	Per 5	Per 5
Block IV (104 minutes)	Per 6 Per 7	Per 7	Per 6	Per 6 Per 7	Per 6 Per 7

rather than on alternate days in order to simplify the setup and cleanup of instructional equipment.

Still another possibility would be to provide three periods that meet daily and four that meet every other day for a double block. Lunch periods can be scheduled before and after singleton periods 3, 4, and 5 (see Table 3). This model also meshes well with traditional half-day vocational programs. Students traveling to the vocational center for the morning would return to the base school for lunch, fourth period, fifth period, and, on alternate days, sixth period or seventh period (both double blocks). Afternoon vocational students would have a double block of first or second period and then periods three, four, and lunch before leaving the base school for the vocational center.

TABLE 3.
Three Single and Four Double Periods

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 1	Day 2
Block I (104 minutes)	Per. 1	Per. 2	Per. 1	Per. 2
Block II (three single periods & four possible lunch periods, 202 minutes)	Per. 3 Per. 4 Per. 5	Per. 3 Per. 4 Per. 5	Per. 3 Per. 4 Per. 5	Per. 3 Per. 4 Per. 5
Block III (104 minutes)	Per. 7	Per. 6	Per. 7	Per. 6

COMBINED PLAN

The 75-75-30 plan and the alternate-day block schedule both have positive attributes. Another possibility to consider is to combine the two plans into a schedule that offers some advantages of each. Because two teachers of related subjects are assigned the same two groups of students on alternate days for a term, interdisciplinary teaming arrangements, common in middle schools, are supported by this hybrid model.

For a fall term of 75 days an English teacher could be assigned 25 students for the first five periods of day 1 and another 25 students for the same periods on day 2. Mirroring the English teacher's schedule, a social studies teacher could be assigned the same two groups of students on opposite days. If the teachers decided to work as a teaching pair, the first five periods of the day could be scheduled flexibly. For example, they could teach each of their two groups every day for 2½ periods; they could instruct single groups for five periods on alternate days; they could occasionally work with both groups together. Also, the teachers could choose to work with one group consecutively for a predetermined period of time, such as three weeks, and then exchange. The remaining two periods each day would be scheduled for teacher planning and the students' electives.

During the winter term of 75 days, the two groups of students would be assigned classes such as algebra and science, which follow the same five-period format suggested for the fall term. One elective course would be completed during the 30-day spring term.

IF WE VISITED our childhood hometowns, most of us would find many changes – new buildings in place of familiar landmarks, interstate highways instead of two-lane roads, malls where the corner store once did business, and a more multicultural population living on Ozzie and Harriet's old block. In spite of these differences, we probably would find the local high school schedule unchanged.

We believe that schools continue to operate with last year's or even last generation's schedule because few practical alternatives have been explored. To respond to the changing needs of high school students, the secondary school schedule needs renewed attention. We must view a schedule not simply as a barrier blocking the path to school improvement, but as an untapped resource that can be drawn on to solve problems and implement needed programs. The models we have described only hint at the power of scheduling as a resource. With open minds and equal doses of creativity and technical expertise, school administrators, teachers, and students can harness this power to escape the paralysis of the lockstep high school schedule.

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1. Asheboro High School in Asheboro, North Carolina; Governor Thomas Johnson High School in Frederick, Maryland; and Amherst, Orange, and Pulaski County High Schools in Virginia are examples of schools that have implemented block schedules in which the number of classes assigned to students and teachers each semester is reduced. At these schools students may enroll in four full-credit courses, and teachers teach only three courses per semester.

2. Ann Bradley, "Reforming Philadelphia's High Schools from Within," *Education Week*, 18 November 1992, pp. 1, 17-19; and Austin Independent Schools, "Caution: Hazardous Grade – Ninth Graders at Risk," unpublished paper, ERIC ED 290 971, 1987.

3. Students who choose not to enroll in a singleton class may use this period for clubs, activities, or assisted study with designated teachers. For schools without the resources to fund what is the equivalent of a seven-period schedule, this singleton could be eliminated. To facilitate the offering of classes that are more appropriately scheduled yearlong, one of the three 112-minute block courses could be divided into two 54-minute yearlong singletons with four minutes of passing time between.

4. Philip A. Cusick, *Inside High School* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1973); and Edward. H. Seifert and John J. Beck, Jr., "Relationships Between Task Time and Learning Gains in Secondary Schools," *Journal of Educational Research*, vol. 78, 1984, pp. 5-10.

5. Seifert and Beck, op cit.

6. So much instructional time was saved at Atlee High School in Mechanicsville, Virginia, through the implementation of a double-block schedule that mathematics teachers reported completing the traditional curriculum nearly four weeks earlier in the school year than when they had operated with a seven-period schedule.

7. We are convinced that the grading and promotional practices used by many teachers and schools constitute an impediment to the progress of some students; however, these practices persist. (See Robert Lynn Canady and Phyllis Riley Hotchkiss, "It's a Good Score! Just a Bad Grade," *Phi Delta Kappan*, September 1989, pp. 68-71.) The 75-75-30 model offers opportunities for the timely progress of students who have failed a class. We are concerned, however, that "built-in" opportunities for students to repeat courses during the school year may encourage teachers to fail more students. We urge administrators and teachers to use these flexible schedules to give students opportunities to strengthen their skills and knowledge base, so that they may ultimately attain a higher degree of academic success in high school, and not to regard them as a conscience-easing excuse to fail more students.

8. Atlee High School implemented this schedule during the 1991-92 school year. K

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5. Database and Selected Articles

DATABASE OF MATERIALS GATHERED UNDER TASK 6

Summer 1994

ADMINISTRATION OF PROGRAMS FOR LEP STUDENTS

As part of its activities under Task 6 (Collect and disseminate information in a designated area of Bilingual Education) the New England MRC reviews periodicals and other published materials for articles of particular interest to bilingual program administrators, as well as to superintendents, principals, and other educational administrators responsible for language minority students.

The 144 entries in the Database are currently divided into 8 subtopics. Within each subtopic articles are listed alphabetically by author. Asterisks indicate new entries for the summer 1994 mailing. Entries marked with • have been copied and are included at the end of this document.

Subtopics.

•Assessment

•Community Relations

•Family Integrated Services

•Instructional Program

•Leadership

•Planning for Change

•Staff Development

•Supervision

•Research and Program Evaluation

ADMINISTRATION OF PROGRAMS FOR LEP STUDENTS

SELECTED ARTICLES GATHERED FROM PERIODICALS

by

The Brown University
Education Alliance

NEW ENGLAND MRC

UNDER TASK 6

Topic	Author	Title	Source
*Assessment	Darling-Hammond, Linda	*"Performance-Based Assessment and Educational Equity"*	Harvard Ed. Review, Vol.64 No. 1 1994
*Assessment	LaCelle-Peterson, Mark W./ Rivera Charlene	*"Is It Real for All Kids? A Framework for Equitable" "Assessment Policies for English Lang. Learners"*	Harvard Ed. Review, Vol. 64 No. 1 1994
*Assessment	Madaus, George F.	*"A Technological and Historical Consideration of Equity Issues Associated with Proposals to Change the Nation's Testing Policy"*	Harvard Ed. Review, Vol. 64 No. 1 1994
*Assessment	Marzano, R.J./Pickering, D./ McTighe, J.	*"Assessing Student Outcomes: Performance Assessment Using the Dimensions of Learning Model"*	ASCD 1993
*Assessment	McDonald, J./ Barton, E./ Smith, S./Turner, D./ Finney, M.	*"Graduation by Exhibition: Assessing Genuine Achievement"*	ASCD 1993
*Assessment	McKeon, Denise	*"When Meeting "Common" Standards is Uncommonly Difficult"*	Educational Leadership May 1994
*Assessment	Pullin, Diana C.	*"Learning to Work: The Impact of Curriculum and Assessment Standards on Educational Opprt."*	Harvard Ed. Review, Vol. 64 No. 1 1994
*Assessment	Sawyer, C. B./ Márquez, J.A.	*"Discrimination Against LEP Students in Gifted and Talented Classes"*	Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students: v. 12, summer 1993
*Assessment	Smith, Brian J.	*"The Language of Assessment"*	Education Alliance in Press
Community Relations	Banks,J. A.	*"Multicultural Education: For Freedom's Sake"*	Educational Leadership: v.49,4 (12/91)
Community Relations	Berliner, D.C.	*"Mythology and the American System of Education"*	Phi Delta Kappan: (4/93)
Community Relations	Bowers, C.A./Flinders, D.	*"Culturally Responsive Teaching and Supervision: A Handbook..."*	NY: Teachers College Press, 1991
Community Relations	Bullard, S.	*"Sorting Through the Multicultural Rhetoric"*	Educational Leadership: v.49,4 (12/91)
•*Community Relations	Davies, Don	*"A More Distant Mirror: Progress Report on a Cross-National Project to Study Family-School-Community Partnerships"*	Equity and Choice, Vol. X, No. 1, Fall 1993
*Community Relations	Delgado, Melvin	*"The Need to Connect Natural and Formal Systems of Support in Puerto Rican Communities"*	Equity and Choice, Vol. IX, No. Two, Winter 93
Community Relations	Hidalgo, Nitza M.	*"Facing Racism in Education"*	MA: Harvard Educational Review, 1990
*Community Relations	Howard, Roy E.	*"Educational Policy and Practice: A Bureau of Indian Affairs School"*	The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, Volume 12, Summer 1993
*Community Relations	Ledell, M./ Arnsparger, A.	*"How to Deal with Community Criticism of School Change"*	ASCD 1993
*Community Relations	Lines, Patricia M.	*"Reaching Out to All Parents: The Untold Success of Alum Rock"*	Equity and Choice, Vol. X, No. Three, Spring 94

Indicates New Entry Summer 1994
•Indicates Copy of Article Included in Following Selection

Topic	Author	Title	Source
Community Relations	Lucas,T./Henze/Donato	*"Promoting the Success of Latino Language Minority Students"*	Harvard Educ. Review: v.60,3 (8/90)
*Community Relations	Moore, Linda R.	*"Re-defining, Re-inventing, and Re-establishing Community"*	Equity and Choice, Vol. IX, No. Two, Winter 93
Community Relations	Olsen	*"Crossing the Schoolhouse Border: Immigrant Student and the California Public Schools"*	California Tomorrow Policy Research Report 1988
Community Relations	O'Neil, J.	*"Schools a Battleground in Cultural Wars"*	ASCD Update: 33,7 (10/91)
•*Community Relations	Ooka Pang, Valerie	*"Universities as Good Neighbors for Ethnic Communities"*	Equity & Excellence in Education Volume 26, No. 1, April 1993
Community Relations	Ozturk, M.	*"Education for Cross-Cultural Communication"*	Educational Leadership: v.49,4 (12/91)
*Community Relations	Reyhner, J.	*"American Indian Language Policy and School Success"*	The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, Volume 12, Summer 1993
Community Relations	Schmidt, P.	*"Language Minorities Seek Place in Desegregation Case"*	Education Week: (2/17/93)
Community Relations	Short, D.	*"Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning: A National Center for Educators"*	ERIC/CLL News Bulletin:15,1 (9/91)
Community Relations		*"Kids Who Speak Spanish: Schools that Help Them Learn"*	Harvard Education Letter: 7,6 (11/91)
Community Relations		*"NASBE Stakes Out Multicultural Education Goals"*	Education Daily: 24,195 (10/8/91)
Community Relations		*"The New World: A Special Issue on Multiculturalism"*	Boston Globe Magazine: 10/13/91
*Family Integrated Serv.	Alvarez/Hofstetter Donovan/Huie	"Patterns of Communication in a Racial/Ethnic Context The Case of an Urban Public High School"	Urban Education Vol. 29 No. 2 July 1994
*Family Integrated Serv.	Ames, Carole	"How School-to-Home Communications Influence Parent Beliefs and Perceptions"	Equity and Choice, Vol. IX, No. Three Spring 1993
*Family Integrated Serv.	Carter, J. Langford	"Moving from Principles to Practice: Implementing a Family-Focused Approach in Schools and Community Services"	Equity and Choice Volume X, Number Three, Spring 1994
*Family Integrated Serv.	Clinchy, Evans	Finding Out What a School and Its Community Nee and Want"	Equity and Choice Volume X, Number Three, Spring 1994
*Family Integrated Serv.	Clinchy, Evans	"Buillding a Family-School Partnership at a Boston School"	Equity and Choice, Vol. X, No. Two, Winter 94
•*Family Integrated Serv.	Finders, M./Lewis, C.	"Why Some Parents Don't Come to School"	Educational Leadership May 1994
*Family Integrated Serv.	Fruchter/Galletta/LynneWhite	"New Directions in Parent Involvement"	Equity and Choice, Vol IX, No. Three,Spring 93

Topic	Author	Title	Source
*Family Integrated Serv.	Gardner, S.	"Training for the Future: Family Support and School-Linked Services"	Equity and Choice Volume X, Number Three, Spring 1994
*Family Integrated Serv.	Greenspan/Seeley/Niemeyer	"Principals Speak: The Need for Mental Health and Social Services"	Equity and Choice Volume X, Number Three, Spring 1994
*Family Integrated Serv.	Johnson, Vivian R.	"Parent Centers Send a Clear Message: Come Be a Partner in Educating Your Children"	Equity and Choice, Vol. X, No. Two, Winter 94
*Family Integrated Serv.	Klass/Pettinelli/Wilson	"Home Visiting: Building a Bridge Between Home and School"	Equity and Choice, Vol. X, No. One, Fall 1993
*Family Integrated Serv.	Thompson, Scott	"Launching a Family Center"	Equity and Choice, Vol. X, No. Two, Winter 94
•*Family Integrated Serv.	Zetlin/Campbell/ Lujan M./Lujan R.	"Schools and Families Working Together for Children"	Equity and Choice Volume X, Number Three, Spring 1994
Instructional Program			
Instructional Program		*"Resource Manual for Implementing Bilingual Education Programs"*	Regional Educational Agencies Project on International Education
Instructional Program		*"TESOL Resource Packet: "Is Your School Helping its Language Minority Students?"*	TESOL
•Instructional Program		*"TESOL Statement on the Education of K-12 Language Minorities in the United States"*	TESOL
*Instructional Program	Allington, R.L./ Broikou, K.A.	*"Development of Shared Knowledge: A New Role for Classroom and Specialist Teachers"*	The Reading Teacher, 4/93
*Instructional Program	Avalos Heath, I.	*"Foreign Language Immersion Programs: Reforms that Consider a Global Perspective for a Changing World Economy"*	The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, Volume 12, Summer 1993
Instructional Program	De George, G. (ed.)	*"Bilingual Program Management: A Problem Solving Approach"*	EDAC, Cambridge, MA, 1985
Instructional Program	De George, G.	*"Improving Bilingual Program Management"*	EDAC, Cambridge, MA, 1981
*Instructional Program	Drake, S.	*"Planning Integrated Curriculum: The Call to Adventure"*	ASCD 1993
•*Instructional Program	Fradd, S. H.	*"Collaboration in Schools Serving Students with Limited English Proficiency and Other Special Needs"*	NABE News, 9/15/93
Instructional Program	Halsell Miranda, A./Scott/ Forsythe/Spratley/Conrad McKeon,D./Malarz,L.	*"The Implementation of a Comprehensive Multicultural Program"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: v. 13,2 (1992)
*Instructional Program	Handscombe, Jean	*"Lessons from the Younger Set"*	The Canadian Modern Language Review, v. 50, n.1, October 19933
*Instructional Program	Hernandez von Hoff, G.A.	*"Principals' Perception of Their Preparation for Administering Educational Programs for Limited English Proficient (LEP) Students"*	The Journal of Educational Issues for Language Minority Students, Volume 11, Winter 1992

Topic	Author	Title	Source
•"Instructional Program	Howe, Christopher K.	*"Improving the Achievement of Hispanic Students"*	Educational Leadership May 1994
Instructional Program	Hudelson, Sara, Ed.	*"English as a Second Language Curriculum Resource Handbook"*	Kraus International Publications 1993
"Instructional Program	Johns, Kenneth M.	*"Mainstreaming Language Minority Students Through Cooperative Grouping"*	The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students Vol. 11, Fall 1992
"Instructional Program	Marzano, R.J.	*"A Different Kind of Classroom: Teaching with Dimensions of Learning"*	ASCD 1992
"Instructional Program	Means, B./Chelemer, C./ Knapp, M.	*"Teaching Advanced Skills to At-Risk Students: Views from Reasearch and Practice"*	Jossey-Bass, Inc. 1993
Instructional Program	Olsen, Laurie	*"Bridges: Promising Programs for the Education of Immigrant Children"*	California Tomorrow Immigrant Students Project 1989
Instructional Program	Slavin, R./Karweit, N./ Madden, N.	*"School Based Management: What Bilingual and ESL Program Directors Should Know*	NCBE Prog.Info.Guide Series #5 (1991) Language Arts: v.66,4 (4-89)
		Effective Programs for Students at Risk"	Center for Research on Elementary and Middle Schools, Johns Hopkins U. 1989
Instructional Program	Stainback, S.		
		"Curriculum Considerations in Inclusive Classrooms: Facilitating Learning for All Students"	Paul H.Brookes Publishing Co., Baltimore, 1992
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"Instructional Program	Wheelock, Anne	*"From Tracking to Untracking in the Middle Grades"*	Equity and Choice, Vol. IX, No. Two, Winter 93
"Instructional Program	Willis, Scott	*"Teaching Language-Minority Students Role of Native-Language Instruction is Debated"*	ASCD Vol. 36, No. 5, June 1994
"Instructional Program	Wyman, S,	*"Supervision of Instruction in Bilingual How to Respond to Your Culturally Diverse Student Population"*	From: Bilingual Education for Latinos, Washington, DC: ASCD, 1978 ASCD 1993
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Leadership	Bolman, L.G. /Deal, T.E.	*"Reframing School Leadership"*	NCEL 1991
"Leadership	Fredericks, Janet	*"Ongoing Principal Development The Route to Restructuring Urban Schools"*	Education and Urban Society/Nov. 1992
Leadership	Hatch, E.	*"A Guide to Developing Educational Leadership"*	MA: Educational Development Center -1979
"Leadership	Hudson, Mildred J.	*"Women and Minorities in School Administration Re-examining the Role of Informal Job Contact Systems"*	Urban Education Vol 28, No. 4, January 1994
Leadership	Leithwood, K.A.	*"The Move Toward Transformational Leadership"*	Educational Leadership: v.49,5 (2/92)
Leadership	Mitchell, D.E./Tucker, S.	*"Leadership as a Way of Thinking"*	Harvard Educ. Review: v.61,4 (11/91)
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Planning for Change		*"Strategies for Success: What's Working in Education Today"*	Cambridge,MA: Harvard Ed. Review,1990
Planning for Change	Asayesh, G.	*"Long-Range Planning for Individual and Organization Development"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: 14,2 (1993)
Planning for Change	Barth, R.	*"Improving Schools from Within: Teachers, Parents, and Principals Can Make a Difference"*	CA: Jossey-Bass, 1992
Planning for Change	Barth, R.	*"A Personal Vision of a Good School"*	Phi Delta Kappan, (3/1990)
Planning for Change	Brittain, J.C.	*"Educational and Racial Equity Toward the Twenty-First Century-- A Case Experiment in Connecticut"*	Race in America: The Struggle for Equality, Eds. Hill/Jones, U.of Wisconson Press, 1993
Planning for Change	Carlin, P. M.	*"The Principal's Role in Urban School Reform"*	Education and Urban Society (11/92)
•"Planning for Change	Collins, H. Thomas	*"International Education for Tomorrow's Citizens"*	The School Administrator August 1993
•"Planning for Change	Donahoe, T.	*"Finding the Way: Structure, Time, and Culture in School Improvement"*	Phi Delta Kappan (12/93)
Planning for Change	Ellis,S.S.	*"'Let's Do Something Significant and Make it Happen': An Interview with Michael O'Kane"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: V.14,3 (1993)
Planning for Change	Ellis, S.S.	*"Systemic Change in an Elementary School"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: v. 13,4 (1992)
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"Planning for Change	Garcia, H.S.	*"Shifting the Paradigms of Education and Language "Policy: Implications for Language Minority Children"*	The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, Volume 12, Summer 1993
Planning for Change	Gitlin, A.D.	*"Educative Research: Voice and School Change"*	Harvard Educ. Review: v.60,4 (11/90)
Planning for Change	Glickman, C.D. (ed.)	*"Supervision in Transition"*	Alexandria, VA: ASCD, 1992
•"Planning for Change	Griego Jones, T.	*"The Connection Between Urban School Reform and Urban School Populations: How Are Urban School Reform Efforts Addressing the Needs of Language Minority Students?"*	The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, Volume 12, Summer 1993
"Planning for Change	King K./ Weiser Ramirez, E.	*School Finance: Many Questions, Elusive Solutions*	Equity and Choice, Vol. X, No. Three, Spring 94
Planning for Change	Mendez, G.	*"Promoting Change in Programs for Limited English Proficient Students"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: v. 9,2 (1988)

Topic	Author	Title	Source
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Staff Development	Garmston, R.	*"Staff Developers as Social Architects"*	Educational Leadership: v.49,3 (11/91)
*Staff Development	Garmstrom, R./Wellman, B.	*"How to Make Presentations that Teach and Transform"*	ASCD 1992
Staff Development	Heitmuller, P./Leuzinger/ McAfee/Smith/Pajak	*"Dimensions of Professional Growth for Educational Leaders"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: v.14,1 (1993)
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Staff Development	Joyce, B.	*"Changing School Culture Through Staff Development"*	ASCD 1990
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Staff Development	Katz, Malcolm	*"The Staff Development Needs of Superintendents and Principals"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: 11,4 (1990)
•*Staff Devlopment	Kuhlman, N.A./Vidal, J.	*"Meeting the Needs of LEP Students Through New Teacher Training: The Case in California"*	Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students: v. 12, summer 1993
Staff Development	Lyman, L./Foyle, H.C.	*"Cooperative Grouping for Interactive Learning: Students,Teachers, & Admin."*	Washington DC, NEA: (1990)
*Staff Development	Miranda, Antoinette H./Scott	*"Preparing Classroom Teachers for the Future: The Development, Implementation and Follow-up of a Multicultural Education Course"*	Journal of Staff Dev. Summer 1994 Vol 15 No3
Staff Development	Murphy, C.	*"Changing Organizational Culture Through Administrator Study Groups"*	The Developer, NSDC (10/1991)
*Staff Development	Polites, Gloria R.	*"Developing a Multicultural Mind-Set"*	Equity and Choice, Vol. IX, No. Two, Winter 93
Staff Development	Sarabun, C.A.	*"A Principal's Role in Supporting Teachers As Staff Developers"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: v.8,1 (1987)
Staff Development	Schmuck, P.A.	*"Educating the New Generation of Superintendents"*	Educational Leadership: v.49,5 (2/92)
Staff Development	Schroff, M.E./Bailey, G.D.	*"Principals' Views of Staff Development"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: 12,4 (1991)
Staff Development	Seller, W.	*"New Images for the Principal's Role in Professional Development"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: v.14,1 (1993)
Staff Development	Sparks, D.	*"The Professional Development of Principals: A Conversation with Roland S. Barth"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: v.14,1 (1993)

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*Planning for Change	Minorini, Paul	*Recent Developments in School Finance Equity and Educational Adequacy Cases"*	ERS Spectrum, Winter 1994
•*Planning for Change	Miramontes, O. B.	*"ESL Policies and School Restructuring: Risks and Opportunities for Language Minority Students"*	The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, Volume 12, Summer 1993
Planning for Change	Murphy, C.	*"Three District Perspectives of Long-Range Planning"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: 14,2 (1993)
Planning for Change	Middleton, S.	*"Equity, Equality, and Biculturalism in the Restructuring of New Zealand Schools"*	Harvard Educ. Review: v.62,3 (11/92)
Planning for Change	Negroni, P.J.	*"The Transformation of America's Public Schools"*	Unpublished Speech: MRC 1 Principal's Conference (5/93)
Planning for Change	Roehmer, M. G.	*"What We Talk About When We Talk About School Reform"*	Educational Leadership: v.49,5 (2/92)
Planning for Change	Sagor, R.D.	*"Three Principals Who Make a Difference"*	Educational Leadership: v.49,5 (2/92)
Planning for Change	Schmidt, P.	*"Superintendents' Consortium Dedicates Itself to Improving Education of L.E.P. Students"*	Education Week: v.11,25 (3/11/92)
*Planning for Change	Sergiovanni, T.	*"Building Community in Schools"*	Jossey-Bass, Inc. 1993
•*Planning for Change	Sklarz, David P.	*"Turning the Promise of Multicultural Education into Practice"*	The School Administrator May 1993
*Planning for Change	Watts, G.D./Castle, S.	*"The Time Dilemma in School Restructuring"*	Phi Delta Kappan (12/93)
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*Planning for Change	Weiss, C.H.	*"Shared Decision Making about What? A Comparison of Schools with and without Teacher Participation"*	Teachers College Record, v. 95, n.1, Fall 1993
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Research & Prog. Eval.	Bissell, J.S.	*"Program Impact Evaluations"*	SWRL Ed.Research & Dev.
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•*Staff Development	Bean Barrett, Marilyn	*"Preparation for Cultural Diversity: Experiential Strategies for Educators"*	Equity & Excellence in Education Volume 26, No. 1, April 1993

Topic	Author	Title	Source
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Staff Development	Sparks, D.	*"Three Superintendents Speak Out on Planning and Their Role as Staff Developers A Conversation with Mary Negben, David Sousa, and Ray Williams"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: 14,2 (1993)
Staff Development	Tallerico, M.	*"The Professional Development of School Board Members"*	Journal of Staff Dev.: v.14,1 (1993)
"Staff Development	Wood, F.	*"How to Organize a School-Based Staff Development Program"*	ASCD 1993
Supervision	Bonstingl, J. J.	*"Schools of Quality: An Introduction to Total Quality Management in Education"*	ASCD 1992
Supervision	Bruce, J.	*"The Self-Renewing School"*	ASCD, 1993
Supervision	O'Neil, J.	*"Supervision Reappraised"*	ASCD: v. 35,6 (8/93)
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Supervision	Pajak, E.	*"Change and Continuity in Supervision and Leadership"*	Challenges and Achievements in American Education: ASCD (1993)

A More Distant Mirror

Progress Report on a Cross-National Project to Study Family-School-Community Partnerships

by Don Davies

The following article refers to a cross-national action research project involving eight schools in the United States and 11 schools in five other countries. The purpose of the project is to study family-community-school partnerships and the policies or political contexts that shape—and are shaped by—them. The project is sponsored by the Institute for Responsive Education (IRE) and the Center on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning, which is supported by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement. The schools are all part of IRE's network—the League of Schools Reaching Out. The researchers working with the international schools were invited to participate through the center's International Network of Scholars.

This article is adapted from a presentation made at the European Roundtable on Family-School-Community Partnerships, September 7, 1993 in Faro, Portugal.

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More than 20 researchers in six countries (Australia, Chile, the Czech Republic, Portugal, Spain, and the United States) are participating in a cross-national study of the effects of home-school-community partnerships on children's learning, family and educator attitudes, and school climate. The study, coordinated by the Center on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning (Center on Families) under the direction of the Institute for Responsive Education, is based on the conceptual framework of the Center on Families (1990), which views the "inter-institutional connections of the school, family, and community as a set of overlapping spheres of influence on children's learning and environment" (p. 2).

The study has several common features:

- All projects are school based and involve direct, continuing collaboration between the school and an outside agency—university, teacher training institution, or community organization.
- Introduction of at least one intervention to promote family or community partnerships with careful documentation of effects of intervention on one or more of the following outcomes: parent-teacher attitudes and behavior, school climate, and children's learning. At least half of the interventions include one or more types of school-family-community connection (e.g., home visits, involvement in home learning activities).
- A collaborative approach to the work that empowers families and educators as partners rather than objects of research.
- Dual focus on careful documentation of the process of implementation of new partnership interventions and the effects of intervention.
- The use of common survey instruments: A survey of family and educator attitudes and behavior has been adapted for use across sites and is being administered in the first and final year of each project's implementation. Plans are under way to develop additional common instruments for data collection on social and political context of the project, the implementation process, and student outcomes.

For several reasons, we think that the cross-national study will help to advance the agenda of a growing international movement that sees family-community-school partnerships as centrally important to educational and social change.

Los Almendros (Santiago, Chile) is located in one of the poorest neighborhoods of southwest Santiago and has an enrollment of approximately 1,180 students. Serving children from kindergarten through 12th grade, the school is working with a research team from the Center for Research and Development in Education (CIDE), a nongovernment organization with extensive experience in formal and nonformal education. Since 1991, the research team has been working with school staff on "Educando Juntas," a project aimed at improving communication between parents and teachers. Project activities include workshops for parents and teachers to develop curriculum materials, the use of these materials in the classroom as well as in the home, and parent meetings to discuss alternative ways of building communication with the school. The team is interested in looking at changes in the relationships between teachers and parents that result from the project.

Primary School (Preston, Australia) serves approximately 650 families, most of whom are low income and/or are considered minorities. Located in Preston, Victoria, the school is implementing a home reading program that allows teachers to take time during school hours to conduct home visits and help parents read with their children. The team seeks to find out which training methods are most effective and less time-consuming in training parents to read with their children by focusing on three specific strategies. It is working with children between the ages of six and eight who are considered to be poor readers. With the help of school staff, the team will train parents in these methods and assess the impact of each on the children's reading ability.

Action Research as a Tool for Encouraging Cross-Cultural Exchange

Research and action are significant parts of the agenda in this movement. We believe that for the

Modern Languages Elementary School (Prague, Czech Republic) serves 640 children age six through 14 whose families are considered to be of middle and higher socioeconomic status. Most parents of students at this school also have a high level of education. Children are admitted into the school based on their demonstrated gift for languages. The research team hopes to increase communication between home and school by looking at the current relationship between the two. They will also look to answer questions about how parents' attitudes toward school affects their involvement in their children's education and how teacher's attitudes toward parents affects their behavior toward them as well as their teaching practices. The team is particularly interested in looking at the changes in family and school partnerships in light of recent political changes.

Also located in Prague, *Chelcickeho Elementary School* is implementing an innovative program that strives to mainstream dyslexic students into "normal" classrooms after the fourth grade. There are currently 680 students at the school, 10 to 12 of whom are dyslexic. Parents of students at this school come from a diverse socioeconomic background. Moreover, teachers and school staff are quite dedicated to the school. The research team is looking at how having a special classroom for dyslexic children and their subsequent mainstreaming is affected by the relationship between parents of those children, school staff, and teachers. The team hopes that communication and collaboration between teachers and parents will improve as a result of the project such that the challenges of mainstreaming can be met successfully.

research agenda to be most useful, it should be inclusive, tapping the work of researchers from many parts of the world and a wide range of disciplines, using diverse frameworks and methods, and working in a variety of settings. Exchanging ideas through publications and international forums is a good way to make the research agenda more inclusive. But collaborative work in a cross-national study adds another and very useful dimension.

Demonstrating That Parent Involvement Works in Culturally Diverse Settings

Demonstration projects are another important means of advancing an agenda that includes both research and action. As Graham Room pointed out in his extremely perceptive and useful book, *Cross-National Innovation in Social Policy* (Room 1986), action research projects "offer small scale demonstrations of alternative forms of social intervention which give practical plausibility and credibility to new paradigms of policy and professional practice" (p. 101).

Systematic, careful evaluation of demonstrations such as those involved in our cross-national project, provides both practitioners and policymakers with "material"—building blocks—for changing practice or policy. If the systematic evaluation of demonstration projects can occur in multiple and diverse settings—including multinational settings—the nature of the "material" available for thinking about change is obviously enriched.

Experimentation and innovation are inspired by example. As Room points out to those interested in social or educational change, there are few really "new" ideas. Changes in policies or practices are rarely produced from thin air or from virgin blocks of stone but, rather, are applications of theories and adaptations of ideas molded in new ways yet rooted in the experience of others. Experimentation and innovation in the family-community-school partnership arena will be encouraged by the existence of good examples in a wide variety of contexts, including examples from more than one country.

Finally, experience and examples in other countries are useful to those in the United States who are seeking changes in policies or in institutional practice. This is what I call the "more distant mirror" phenomenon. Looking at our problems and alternative solutions to them at a distance, seems to give policymakers different ways of thinking about the close-to-home problems and useful ammunition to take the political risks needed to make changes.

Early Learnings From Cross-National Study

The most important learning is going on in each school by parents, teachers, other school staff, and the facilitator. Reports from several sites indicate that much data already has been gathered and analyzed and many tentative conclusions being reached on important research questions. Although it is too early to discuss the process or the results in a definitive way, it is in order to draw out tentative themes and to reflect on them briefly.

Change in a Time of Political Transition

Four of the five countries participating in the project have undergone political transitions from authoritarian to democratic governments. In the 1970s, both Spain and Portugal emerged from decades of repressive right-wing dictatorship. In the late 1980s, Chile reestablished a democratic government after years of military control, and in 1991 the Czech's Velvet Revolution overthrew the Communist dictatorship.

In all of these countries, education is seen as an important tool in the democratic transition, just as it has been in the development of democratic institutions in both Australia and the United States.

The "time of transition" theme offers a richly interesting backdrop for the project work in Chile and the Czech Republic and to a somewhat lesser extent in Spain and Portugal, both of which have already installed stable democratic forms. Interesting questions will be addressed: How has the political change affected attitudes and practices in the schools, including those that relate to relationships between the schools and parents and the community? To what extent do interventions for parent or community collaboration address the issues of the political transition?

Certainly the tensions and turmoil of a time of political transition help to explain interest in innovations in social policy and practice such as school-parent collaboration. Donald Schon (1971) has pointed out that "a wide range of policy alternatives are forever available but are generally expelled to the margins of society by those responsible for policy. Only at times of crisis can these innovators mount effective challenges to conventional practices."

But the impact of profound political changes and interest in innovations such as those in this project do not necessarily remove the old barriers to collaboration between schools and families and community institutions and agencies.

Reports from some of the projects indicate that many of the old barriers are still often there—for example, "the blaming the victim" tendency of teachers and school officials who often locate as the primary cause of the failure in school of so many children from poor families the characteristics of those families and their communities. A deficit view of low-income and ethnically different communities still seems to prevail as does a lack of confidence by educators in the interest of low-income families in their children's education and their ability to help with that education.

Zakladni Skola is an urban school in Prague and serves children age six to 14. It has special classes for students with a demonstrated gift in the math and sciences as well as special classes for students with low academic achievement. The school also has two innovative curricular programs, one focused on problem teaching, the other on science integration. The research team is looking at changes in parents' attitudes toward the school, especially in the context of the current social and political transition. The intervention, therefore, is the actual team looking at building communication between families and school.

Escola Preparatoria de Teixeira Lopes is located in Vila Nova de Gaia, northern Portugal and has a student population of 1,337, most of whom have parents with little or no schooling. With the help of the research team, the school has been putting into practice alternative ways of establishing communication between parents and teachers, such as providing training to parents in home learning activities. The school has also put into use a telephone hotline so that parents and teachers have a more direct means of communication. The team will be studying the effects of these alternative communication strategies on the relationships between parents and teachers.

In the Portuguese component of the three-nation study in 1987, 13 years after that country's peaceful revolution in which progressive, egalitarian, and left-wing rhetoric was prominent, it appeared clear that school power remained highly centralized in the capital and the involvement of parents in school affairs was stoutly resisted by teachers. Professional traditions of keeping parents out and of minimizing contacts with civic authorities and other community institutions were still dominant, despite the generally more progressive political tone of the country.

Overcoming Isolation: Researchers From Researchers, Schools From Schools, Schools From Researchers

Our cross-national project confronts challenges arising from traditions of isolation. I can assert, based

Escola Primaria de Sismaria da Gandara is located on the outskirts of Leiria, a small city in central Portugal. Although the community surrounding the school is economically heterogeneous, most students' families are lower income and work in the local factories. Parents at the school have organized an after-school program consisting of academic and recreational activities. This program runs from 2:00 p.m. to 6:00 p.m. and brings together parents, teachers, and students. Although she initially met with some resistance, the principal continues to be very committed to building partnerships between families and the school, and has been able to rally support for the team. The team in turn will look at the impact of the after-school program on the relationship between parents and school staff.

Rumo Ao Futuro is a Catholic elementary school located in Entroncamento, Portugal. With a sliding scale tuition system, the school serves children of middle- and working-class families. Apart from an after-school program, school staff are also looking into alternative ways of improving communication between parents and teachers. These alternative strategies have included newsletters, written notes, and evening meetings between parents and teachers. The team seeks to gain a better understanding of parents' and teachers' perceptions of each other, and how these change as a result of improved communication.

on my own experience and observation over many years, that we face a threefold problem of isolation.

First, researchers do not habitually exchange preliminary findings and ideas with other researchers. Many see research by definition as a lonely, scientific enterprise, the results of which are to be shared only after everything is completed, verified, and tied up. Action research requires the opposite approach (Davies, Palanki, and Burch 1993). Research is a team affair; results and findings are to be shared and discussed as the work progresses and used as the basis for action.

I observe that the researchers involved in the cross-national study appear now to welcome and enjoy communication with their fellow researchers in other sites.

Second, schools are traditionally wary of exchanging information with other schools, especially when needs, problems, and conflicts are involved. It appears to be widely felt that sharing of information and problems can get educators in trouble with school officials, funding sources, and parent and teacher organizations.

The third kind of isolation is that of schools from researchers and research. This is an even older and more deep-seated tradition than the first two varieties. Most school practitioners experience research as something "done to them" or "for them" by outside experts, and they often see no connection between the studies and their own work and no particular benefits for their work as a result of studies. Research is a natural part of the academic culture; it is an alien in the school culture.

We can see from the early work in some of the sites of the multinational study that action research can help to break down this kind of isolation and help school practitioners see research in a different light. When teachers and principals play an important part in planning and conducting the research, have some control over the questions being asked and the data being gathered, and can see that they and their school can benefit from the results, attitudes toward research become more positive. Some of the participants actually begin to talk about themselves as "researchers," which, of course, they are if participatory action research is being undertaken. It may be that one of the unexpected side benefits of the action research approach is the breaking down of some of the traditional resistance to research so often found in schools.

Conclusion

The 1980s and early 1990s have brought political upheaval and transition to many parts of the world. Political changes have been accompanied by increased interest in educational reforms such as family-school-community partnerships. There are indications that in spite of introduction of new policies, many of the old barriers still exist—for example, negative attitudes on the part of parents and teachers. Early reports from a multinational study suggest that action research can be a useful tool for encouraging dialogue across schools, researchers, and continents. ■

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Escola Primaria 5 da Amora (Quinta da Princesa) is an elementary school with 167 students located in the town of Setubal, near Lisbon. It is unique in that 61 percent of the students are from African countries including São Tomé e Principe, Cape Verde, Angola, and Mozambique. The school also has a substantial Gypsy population. Under the leadership of a very dynamic and active principal, the school has recently put into effect a multicultural education program. The research team, school staff, and parents are working to improve school-family communication through a parent center, home visitor program, and diary exchanges between teachers and parents.

Escola Primaria #101 has a student population of approximately 400, 40 percent of whom are children of immigrant families (35 percent Indian and 5 percent Cape Verdeans). Located in an urban section of Lisbon, the school has recently introduced a home visitor program. It is also helping parents with learning activities at home through a reading aloud program. The research team not only helps facilitate these activities but also holds regular sessions with parents at the school and helps them organize and conduct field trips for students. The main purpose of these programs is to facilitate the language acquisition process of immigrant children by changing their families' attitudes toward literacy and school.

Universities as Good Neighbors for Ethnic Communities

VALERIE OOKA PANG

Can universities be good neighbors to their nearby ethnic communities? Universities do much more than educate postsecondary students—their behaviors demonstrate cultural biases and define equity for an educated elite. Their human and material resources are either shared with their neighbors in ways that affect the learning and advancement of all age groups or isolated for enrolled students and approved visitors. Many local ethnic communities are in jeopardy not only because of economic and political disempowerment, but also because of lack of access to institutions of higher education. Education is critical to the betterment of ethnic minority communities; yet few urban universities embrace the expanding diversity of America's population. This article describes how urban universities can strengthen their linkages with culturally diverse communities and contribute to the educational health of local neighborhoods.

RELUCTANCE TO PARTICIPATE IN LOCAL COMMUNITIES

Urban universities can be good neighbors to local communities by acting as key members of neighborhood activities. Unfortunately, some urban universities operate in isolation from their surrounding communities. In major metropolitan areas, many faculty and staff do not live in local neighborhoods. Social networks do not develop because university faculty may not interact politically with local community people in everyday life. For example, if faculty do not live in the area, they may not be members of local school district committees, political groups, or nonprofit organizations which can involve university personnel in neighborhood activities.

Universities may exist in isolation because some university faculty fashion an idealistic world somewhat removed from real-life situations. These professors view themselves as providing objective and technologically advanced information with universal applicability. They may regard community action research projects as too narrow and specific to a local situation and political condition.

Another reason why some faculty may avoid community involvement is their negative perception of problem-based research. Qualitative reports in education, sociology, and anthropology have often been seen as "soft" or "second-rate" scholarship. This was, in part, due to the lack of modern statistical packages. In addition, there were many faculty who only accepted traditional, statistically driven studies. Some researchers from ethnic communities felt forced to separate themselves from their ethnicity; these researchers were encouraged to leave their ethnic membership at the university's gates or face the possibility of not being tenured or promoted. Presently, university faculty are slowly shifting their views as new measuring tools with tested reliability and validity are accepted, and when researchers blend quantitative with qualitative research.

University faculty also are reluctant to participate in neighboring communities because service is not considered an important component for promotion or tenure. In many universities, promotion and tenure are tied primarily to teaching performance and/or publication record. Even in universities where teaching is their main mission, service is not given much weight in the promotion process. In research institutions, faculty are advised not to spend much time in the community for fear that the time spent there would take away from their data-driven, scholarly research. Past biases need to be reevaluated and challenged if universities are to be good neighbors to their local communities in a culturally diverse society.

CULTURALLY DIVERSE STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITIES

Statistics point to proportionately fewer culturally diverse students enrolled in college. In 1991, 64.6% of White high school graduates enrolled in college, while only 45.6% of African American high school graduates attended college (U.S. Department of Education, 1992). A similar pattern was found for Hispanic students, with only 47.3% attending college in 1990.

With the three-tiered hierarchy in higher education of flagship universities, state colleges, and community colleges, disproportionately more minority students attend community colleges than prestigious flagship universities (Astin, 1990). For example, California has a three-tier college system. High school graduation and university admission rates of students who were ninth graders in the 1979–80 school year demonstrated a severe underrepresentation of Hispanic and Black students in higher education in 1983 (Gonzalez & Hurtado, 1988). For each thousand students of all ethnic groups, 32 enrolled in the University of California system, 64 in the state system, and 293 went to community colleges. Out of a thousand African American ninth graders, four years later only 25 enrolled in the University of California system, 45 entered as freshmen in California state universities, and 262 enrolled in community colleges. For Hispanic students, 19 enrolled as freshmen in the University of California system, 36 enrolled in the California state system, and 198 attended community colleges.

Urban universities are central institutions for defining social values of elites and, thus, the roles left to relatively powerless members of society. Most continue to mirror the social caste system of society, thereby extending the disproportionality found in public schools. The lack of students with technical and advanced degrees threatens the economic stability of culturally diverse communities. Enhancing the admission, participation, retention, and success of culturally diverse members of society in universities will serve to generate true public education. Publicly supported colleges and universities should seek balanced representation of culturally diverse students.

STRENGTHENING LINKAGES WITH CULTURALLY DIVERSE COMMUNITIES

Implementation of strategies in universities which embrace the full range of our ethnic, linguistic, and social class diversity has been hampered by structures that isolate ethnic communities from fully participating and contributing to the vitality of the educational health of the community. Six major recommendations are designed to encourage schools and universities to reexamine their commitment to diverse communities.

Review Hierarchical Social Structures That Perpetuate Inequities

Educational faculties should recognize that their inability to provide educational equity may stem from a larger societal context. The problems of admitting, retaining, and graduating culturally diverse students are not easily solved. Lang (1988, p. 9) has stated,

> The problems of black student retention and attrition in higher education cannot be divorced from their sociocultural, socioeconomic, and family backgrounds, or the ramifications of the larger society that perpetuates these characteristics. Regardless of the social and economic problems that black students bring to school with them, it is highly probable that for a larger number of black students who drop out of college it is because they are unprepared for college either financially, emotionally, or in terms of the academic skills necessary for successful matriculation. The lack of basic skills in writing, communication, analysis and synthesis of information, self-motivation and coping strategies are overwhelmingly the most serious problems that black students bring to college with them. These problems are not necessarily their own doing, but are the results of the failures of society to provide the same access to opportunities to minorities.

As Lang has pointed out, one of the major societal obstacles for African American students is economic access to college. Many minority students are from families with limited financial resources and cannot afford the expense of postsecondary education. Presently 56% of the families headed by Black mothers and 59% of Hispanic families headed by women live in poverty in the United States (Reed & Sautter, 1990). There is little hope that children from these families will have the financial resources needed for a college education. Low socioeconomic status and ethnicity are intimately interwoven. Asian, Black, and Hispanic high school graduates in 1980 from the lowest quartile of socioeconomic levels were four or six times less likely to receive a bachelor's degree by the spring of 1986 in comparison to students from the upper quartile (U.S. Department of Education, 1989).

Availability of and increases in financial aid have not kept pace with the increase in college costs (Orfield & Paul, 1988). In some cases universities may not be providing minority graduate students with the same financial assistance as other students. Marian Brazziel (1988) reported that proportionately twice as many White students were receiving teaching and research assistantships in graduate schools in comparison to Black students in the humanities. When culturally diverse students receive less grant funds but more loans, a heavy burden is placed on families for future payments on large educational debts. Students with regular support for study have a greater chance to complete their degrees.

An attempt has been made in the Boston area to address both financial and educational problems of students. Large collaborative efforts have developed between universities, schools, and businesses. In Boston 100 businesses, 23 colleges and universities, the Boston Public Schools, and the Private Industry Council have developed a several stage process of school reform (*Edu-*

cational Record, 1988). Schools agreed to diminish absenteeism and improve retention, to ensure that high school students pass competency exams, and to increase college enrollment. Businesses agreed to hire local students for summer and entry-level employment. In 1986, the unemployment rate for all high school graduates in Boston was only 5%, contrasting with the 1985 national average of 19.5%. In conjunction with impressive changes in employment, 56% of Boston graduates in 1987 entered institutions of higher education, a 5% increase from the previous year. Institutions offered a combined scholarship assistance of $2.5 million to Boston-area students. Though the dropout rate is still high and academic performance of some students remains low, the collaborative effort of schools and community is having positive impact on the local community. It is a courageous attempt at developing good relationships with key members of the local neighborhood.

Implant Cultural Diversity in Urban Universities

Systematic review and analysis of the present infrastructure of urban universities will center more attention on strengthening equity and cultural representation. Lack of administrative policies that reflect the mission of the faculty to educate students who value democratic participation and can function in a culturally diverse society deforms views of equity throughout institutions of higher education. In the past, institutions forced students of color to assimilate into the system and failed to prepare all students for demographic changes in the United States and the interdependence of the United States on the global economy. In the course of study of universities, language programs most often offer instruction in French, German, and Russian, but may not offer Mandarin Chinese, the official language of mainland China, or Tagalog, which is spoken in the Philippines. Though a nation like China has powerful international status, when the language is not included in the course of study of the university, the message of exclusion may be conveyed.

University officials must recognize that merely adding programs to advance equal educational opportunity represents supplemental avenues toward change but has limited influence on university educational systems. Gonzalez and Hurtado (1988) suggest that universities review their efforts toward equity and propose the following activities: (1) coordinate with local K–12 schools in preparing students for postsecondary education where there is direct involvement of high school teachers and administrators along with college faculty; (2) integrate equity issues throughout the university curriculum rather than relying on add-on programs; (3) emphasize collaborative programs with other educational institutions; (4) strengthen evaluation processes by examining programmatic impacts on participating students rather than simply counting numbers of students serviced; and (5) increase efforts in recruiting students from culturally diverse communities into teaching at all levels.

Addressing broad areas like admissions, financial aid, faculty role models, curriculum content, mentoring programs, racial climate, library resources, and campus life for equity will have a system-wide impact. These major components influence the ability of universities to attract, retain, and graduate culturally diverse students. In supporting these efforts, each department could engage in creation of a "student development process" aimed at recruiting and retaining students of color (Smith, 1990). This would include academic advising and regular monitoring of student progress.

Community Outreach Is a Key First Step

Faculty from a few urban universities have developed linkages with local communities through partnership with local schools (Goodlad, 1987). These outreach efforts often focus on large numbers of high school dropouts from African American, Latino American, Native American, and some Asian and Pacific Islander American groups. Individual departments have developed networks with schools providing educational programs for young children which focus on after-school basic skills training and mentoring. These mutually beneficial partnerships also allow university faculty to engage in community-based research or to test out innovations such as educational software. For example, San Diego State University provides an after-school math enrichment program for second- and third-grade children in inner city schools (Smollar, 1989). Parents also receive instruction in math education so that they may assist their children with math homework. These community programs provide not only basic skills, but also critical professional role models which broaden student knowledge of career possibilities. University communities gain knowledge of effective teaching strategies and recruit students from a broader population.

University faculty can invite parents to university preparation programs. Community outreach programs provide parents with information on how grades in senior high school affect college admissions, since many students and parents of color do not understand what level of academic grades are needed for college admission. Parent and student orientations also include information regarding the type of careers that urban universities prepare students for, high school courses needed, and job opportunities (Smith, 1990). In addition, parents often are unaware of financial aid and have difficulty with application forms and processes. If university personnel assisted parents with complex paperwork and deadlines, they might understand some of the hidden messages conveyed by their institutional customs. Coordination of outreach programs among departments enhances the access rate of students. In addition, some universities offer summer bridge programs (Lang, 1988). Through these programs, precollege students sharpen their academic study skills.

Diverse Faculty Present Multiple Perspectives as Role Models

Recruitment and retention of culturally diverse faculty members can increase the availability of diverse role models and bring new perspectives to university communities (Richardson & Bender, 1987). The institutionalization of affirmative action has met with both successes and failures. Often the process has been viewed as an inequitable, preferential treatment burdening mainstream, qualified applicants. Too often institutions view affirmative action as merely including ethnically diverse groups into the workforce, ignoring the positive creation of "an environment where no one is advantaged or disadvantaged, an environment where 'we' is everyone" (Thomas, 1990, p. 109).

Students of color sometimes need contact with faculty who understand the difficulties ethnically and culturally different students experience in fitting into the mainstream academic environment. They may seek mentors from their ethnic community who serve as links between home and university life. Often these faculty members are key in student support networks.

Though recruitment of diverse faculty is important in all academic areas, it is crucial in colleges of education. When the majority of children in 25 of the nation's largest school districts are from culturally diverse groups, teacher trainers need to have multicultural knowledge and skills which will assist new teachers in working effectively with all students. Equal access to education no longer only means seating children of various cultural groups next to each other. Education faculty who believe in multicultural education infuse issues of equity throughout the teacher preparation—bringing information about test bias, cognitive development, language acquisition, and counseling techniques into their curriculum.

Another important component of a successful urban university is a faculty composed of academics who have experience in diverse communities, whether they are from majority or culturally diverse communities. Some universities are having difficulty locating mainstream faculty who have a working and theoretical knowledge of equity issues. Many faculty members never studied how the American experience has been shaped by political and legal barriers to equity or the impact on many ethnic and racial groups. This knowledge provides understanding of how the socio-political workings of society have limited the effectiveness of schools with most disenfranchised students.

Faculty Need to Know How Culture Affects Learning

Faculty become more effective in providing enriching and equitable learning environments when they understand how culture influences the cognitive, affective, and social development of students. In addition, the response of society to culture impacts the socio-political status of ethnic groups. The following are examples of ways in which culture can impact schooling: (1) the process of cultural assimilation can negatively impact the development of personal, ethnic, and community identity when students are forced to choose between home and mainstream values; (2) motivational styles of culturally diverse students may conflict with faculty, resulting in miscommunication and alienation; (3) students' learning styles may be more personal and not match the abstract and highly individual teaching styles of mainstream instructors; and (4) faculty have preconceived notions regarding abilities of students based on cultural membership which may limit teachers' expectations and student opportunities in universities.

After a five-year initiative to infuse Multicultural Education into the College of Education at San Diego State University, the College of Education presented the university community with a showcase of their current research dealing with culturally diverse students. Many of these projects were conducted in the local community and school districts. Faculty members created visual charts and presented short talks on their individual research projects. This stimulated conversation about the impact of culture on learning not only within the College of Education, but also between various other colleges and departments within the institutions. Faculty shared successful strategies and problems they encountered. For example, faculty presented information about projects focusing on target student behaviors in multicultural classrooms, collaboration among Southeast Asian American elementary students, and mentoring strategies used with Latino students interested in teaching as a career. Expanding the knowledge base of all university faculty is crucial in their teaching mission and to strengthen the abilities of faculty to become involved in the surrounding community.

Urban Universities Support Research on Multicultural Issues

Universities can create ways in which their faculty can engage in the study of multicultural issues. For example, deans can establish a dean's fund for research on equity. Faculty can apply for small grants which target research with culturally diverse students in local communities. Faculty can write short proposals and submit them to their deans. These proposals can include requests which support services like graduate assistants, literature searches, and travel. These grants can stimulate faculty interest and assist professors in securing limited resources that are needed to conduct various studies. Often the barrier to faculty scholarship is the lack of small amounts of funding.

Institutions can offer guest lecture series for faculty. These lectures provide faculty with the opportunity not only to hear, but also interact with national scholars. Discourse is one of the most effective methods of professional growth for faculty. Professors often enjoy the involvement and reflection which verbal interaction fosters. Dialogue, with specialists who present a wide range of viewpoints about multicultural issues, can vitalize scholarship by providing the chance for professors to clarify and broaden their views.

Universities can begin to support research which is conducted in ethnic communities or studies which focus on ethnic issues by providing grants, graduate fellowships, exchange programs, and teaching and research awards. Administrative mechanisms that encourage multicultural research serve to legitimize and give status to issues of equity. In addition, these activities cultivate the belief in multiple perspectives because diverse outlooks inject new knowledge into the educational community. Additionally, universities can begin to regard community service and action research more favorably in tenure and promotion processes.

CONCLUSIONS

Linkages among urban universities and their local communities can be strengthened through increased dialogue and coordination of efforts. Attempts toward equity should be coordinated throughout a university. Programs which focus on retention of culturally diverse students range from study skill development to community outreach, and may not be part of a well-articulated plan. In the report, "Expanding Educational Equity in California's Schools and Colleges: A Review of Existing and Proposed Programs 1986–1987," Gonzalez and Hurtado (1988, p. 20) indicate the confusion that occurs:

> It should be noted, that there has been resistance on the part of some institutions, as well as, on the part of some equity programs to resist integration into the overall structure of educational institutions. It is not our intention to lay blame for the resistance; it is our intention to encourage a process which will comprehensively ensure that equity programs are critical components of educational institutions. . . . Equity efforts will be strengthened if they are integrated into the core of an institution's teaching, research, support services, outreach efforts, and community service functions.

In the state of California, where people of color represent about 42% of the population, attention has been placed upon examination of equity in the entire system of schooling. Several programs have been successful in developing school-college partnerships. Coordinated efforts of high schools and college financial aid services resulted in an increase of Black freshmen enrollment by 14% and Hispanic enrollment by 40% between 1984 and 1987 (California Postsecondary Education Commission, 1989). The California State University system increased communication with high school and community college students by producing pamphlets for Spanish-speaking parents. The state system has also been successful in retaining new teachers in inner city schools by providing a program for teachers in the field to discuss their problems with university teacher education faculty. At the conclusion of its first year, the California New Teacher Project found 89% of the teachers who participated in the program returned to teach in the same district in the following fall in comparison to 69% of teachers in districts not involved in the program (California Department of Education, 1990). These projects represent a state effort to impact the success of culturally diverse youth on both school and university levels.

The process of schooling is a complicated one laden with economic, political, and social forces which are much larger and more powerful than universities. According to the American Council on Education (1988, p. 1),

> America is moving backward—not forward—in its efforts to achieve the full participation of minority citizens in the life and prosperity of the nation. . . . The goal we suggest is simple but essential: That in 20 years, a similar examination will reveal that America's minority population has attained a quality of life as high as that of the white majority. No less a goal is acceptable. For if we fail, all Americans—not just minorities—will be the victims. But if we succeed, all Americans will reap the benefits.

Universities can make a difference in helping local communities develop their own resources even though we face tremendous problems like resegregated schools, lack of access of culturally diverse students to institutions of higher learning, and a growing underclass. The relationship between ethnic communities and urban universities can be strengthened through dialogue, cooperative goal setting, program development, and collective action. Universities can make good neighbors.

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Why Some Parents Don't Come to School

Margaret Finders and Cynthia Lewis

Instead of assuming that absence means noncaring, educators must understand the barriers that hinder some parents from participating in their child's education.

In our roles as teachers and as parents, we have been privy to the conversations of both teachers and parents. Until recently, however, we did not acknowledge that our view of parental involvement conflicts with the views of many parents. It was not until we began talking with parents in different communities that we were forced to examine our own deeply seated assumptions about parental involvement.

From talking with Latino parents and parents in two low-income Anglo neighborhoods, we have gained insights about why they feel disenfranchised from school settings. In order to include such parents in the educational conversation, we need to understand the barriers to their involvement from their vantage point, as that of outsiders. When asked, these parents had many suggestions that may help educators re-envision family involvement in the schools.

The Institutional Perspective

The institutional perspective holds that children who do not succeed in school have parents who do not get involved in school activities or support school goals at home. Recent research emphasizes the importance of parent involvement in promoting school success (Comer 1984, Lareau 1987). At the same time, lack of participation among parents of socially and culturally diverse students is also well documented (Clark 1983, Delgado-Gaitan 1991).

The model for family involvement, despite enormous changes in the reality of family structures, is that of a two-parent, economically self-sufficient nuclear family, with a working father and homemaker mother (David 1989). As educators, we talk about "the changing family," but the language we use has changed little. The institutional view of nonparticipating parents remains based on a deficit model. "Those who *need* to come, don't come," a teacher explains, revealing an assumption that one of the main reasons for involving parents is to remediate them. It is assumed that involved parents bring a body of knowledge about the purposes of schooling to match institutional knowledge. Unless they bring such knowledge to the school, they themselves are thought to need education in becoming legitimate participants.

Administrators, too, frustrated by lack of parental involvement, express their concern in terms of a deficit model. An administrator expresses his bewilderment:

> Our parent-teacher group is the foundation of our school programs.... This group (gestures to the all-Anglo, all-women group seated in the library) is the most important organization in the school. You know, I just don't understand why *those other parents* won't even show up.

Discussions about family involvement often center on what families lack and how educators can best teach parents to support instructional agendas at home (Mansbach 1993). To revise this limited model for interaction between home and school, we must look outside of the institutional perspective.

The Voices of "Those Other Parents"

We asked some of "those other parents" what they think about building positive home/school relations. In what follows, parents whose voices are rarely heard at school

Patricia Fe

For many parents, their own personal school experiences create obstacles to involvement. Those who have dropped out of school do not feel confident in school settings.

explain how the diverse contexts of their lives create tensions that interfere with positive home/school relations. For them, school experiences, economic and time constraints, and linguistic and cultural practices have produced a body of knowledge about school settings that frequently goes unacknowledged.

Diverse school experiences among parents. Educators often don't take into account how a parent's own school experience may influence school relationships. Listen in as one father describes his son's school progress:

> They expect me to go to school so they can tell me my kid is stupid or crazy. They've been telling me that for three years, so why should I go and hear it again? They don't do anything. They just tell me my kid is bad.
>
> See, I've been there. I know. And it scares me. They called me a boy in trouble but I was a troubled boy. Nobody helped me because they liked it when I didn't show up. If I was gone for the semester, fine with them. I dropped out nine times. They wanted me gone.

This father's experiences created mistrust and prevent him from participating more fully in his son's education. Yet, we cannot say that he doesn't care about his son. On the contrary, his message is urgent.

For many parents, their own personal school experiences create obstacles to involvement. Parents who have dropped out of school do not feel confident in school settings. Needed to help support their families or care for siblings at home, these individuals' limited schooling makes it difficult for them to help their children with homework beyond the early primary level. For some, this situation is compounded by language barriers and lack of written literacy skills. One mother who attended school through 6th grade in Mexico, and whose first language is Spanish, comments about homework that "sometimes we can't help because it's too hard." Yet the norm in most schools is to send home schoolwork with little information for parents about how it should be completed.

Diverse economic and time constraints. Time constraints are a primary obstacle for parents whose work doesn't allow them the autonomy and flexibility characteristic of professional positions. Here, a mother expresses her frustrations:

> Teachers just don't understand that I can't come to school at just any old time. I think Judy told you that we don't have a car right now.... Andrew catches a different bus than Dawn. He gets here a half an hour before her, and then I have to make sure Judy is home because I got three kids in three different schools. And I feel like the teachers are under pressure, and they're turning it around and putting the pressure on me cause they want me to check up on Judy and I really can't.

Often, parents work at physically demanding jobs, with mothers expected to take care of child-care responsibilities as well as school-related issues. In one mother's words:

> What most people don't understand about the Hispanic community is that you come home and you take care of your husband and your family first. Then if there's time you can go out to your meetings.

In many cases, severe economic constraints prevent children from full participation in the culture of the school.

Other parents work nights, making it impossible to attend evening programs and difficult to appear at daytime meetings that interfere with family obligations and sleep.

At times, parents' financial concerns present a major obstacle to participation in their child's school activities. One mother expresses frustration that she cannot send eight dollars to school so her daughter can have a yearbook to sign like the other girls.

> I do not understand why they assume that everybody has tons of money, and every time I turn around it's more money for this and more money for that. Where do they get the idea that we've got all this money?

This mother is torn between the pressures of stretching a tight budget and wanting her daughter to belong. As is the case for others, economic constraints prevent her child from full participation in the culture of the school. This lack of a sense of belonging creates many barriers for parents.

Diverse linguistic and cultural practices. Parents who don't speak fluent English often feel inadequate in school contexts. One parent explains that "an extreme language barrier" prevented her own mother from ever going to anything at the school. Cultural mismatches can occur as often as linguistic conflicts. One Latino educator explained that asking young children to translate for their parents during conferences grates against a cultural norm. Placing children in a position of equal status with adults creates dysfunction within the family hierarchy.

One mother poignantly expresses the cultural discomfort she feels when communicating with Anglo teachers and parents:

> [In] the Hispanic culture and the Anglo culture things are done different and you really don't know—am I doing the right thing? When they call me and say, 'You bring the plates' [for class parties], do they think I can't do the cookies, too? You really don't know.

Voicing a set of values that conflicts with institutional constructions of the parent's role, a mother gives this culturally-based explanation for not attending her 12-year-old's school functions:

> It's her education, not mine. I've had to teach her to take care of herself. I work nights, so she's had to get up and get herself ready for school. I'm not going to be there all the time. She's gotta do it. She's a tough cookie.... She's almost an adult, and I get the impression that they want me to walk her through her work. And it's not that I don't care either. I really do. I think it's important, but I don't think it's my place.

This mother does not lack concern for her child. In her view, independence is essential for her daughter's success.

Whether it is for social, cultural, linguistic, or economic reasons, these parents' voices are rarely heard at school. Perhaps, as educators, we too readily categorize them as "those other parents" and fail to hear the concern that permeates such conversations. Because the experiences of these families vary greatly from our own, we operate on assumptions that interfere with our best intentions. What can be done to address the widening gap between parents who participate and those who don't?

Getting Involved: Suggestions from Parents

Parents have many suggestions for teachers and administrators about ways to promote active involvement. Their views, however, do not always match the role envisioned by educators. Possessing fewer economic resources and educational skills to participate in traditional ways (Lareau 1987), these parents operate at a disadvantage until they understand how schools are organized and how they can promote systemic change (Delgado-Gaitan 1991).

If we're truly interested in establishing a dialogue with the parents of all of our nation's students, however, we need to understand what parents think can be done. Here are some of their suggestions.

Clarify how parents can help. Parents need to know exactly how they can help. Some are active in church and other community groups, but lack information about how to become more involved in their children's schooling. One Latina mother explains that most of the parents she knows think that school involvement means attending school parties.

As Concha Delgado-Gaitan (1991) points out "... the difference between parents who participate and those who do not is that those who do have recognized that they are a critical part in their children's education." Many of the parents we spoke to don't see themselves in this capacity.

Encourage parents to be assertive. Parents who do see themselves as needed participants feel strongly that they must provide their children with a positive view of their history and culture not usually presented at school.

Some emphasize the importance of speaking up for their children. Several, for instance, have argued for or against special education placement or retention for their children; others have discussed with teachers what they saw as inappropriate disciplinary procedures. In one parent's words:

> Sometimes kids are taken advantage of because their parents don't fight for them. I say to parents, if you don't fight for your child, no one's going to fight for them.

Linda Dworenzo

Although it may sound as if these parents are advocating adversarial positions, they are simply pleading for inclusion. Having spent much time on the teacher side of these conversations, we realize that teachers might see such talk as challenging their positions as professional decision makers. Yet, it is crucial that we expand the dialogue to include parent knowledge about school settings, even when that knowledge conflicts with our own.

Develop trust. Parents affirm the importance of establishing trust. One mother attributes a particular teacher's good turnout for parent/teacher conferences to her ability to establish a "personal relationship" with parents. Another comments on her need to be reassured that the school is open, that it's OK to drop by "anytime you can."

In the opportunities we provide for involvement, we must regularly ask ourselves what messages we convey through our dress, gestures, and talk. In one study, for example, a teacher described her school's open house in a middle-class neighborhood as "a cocktail party without cocktails" (Lareau 1987). This is the sort of "party" that many parents wouldn't feel comfortable attending.

Fear was a recurrent theme among the parents we interviewed: fear of appearing foolish or being misunderstood, fear about their children's academic standing. One mother explained:

> Parents feel like the teachers are looking at you, and I know how they feel, because I feel like that here. There are certain things and places where I still feel uncomfortable, so I won't go, and I feel bad, and I think maybe it's just me.

This mother is relaying how it feels to be culturally, linguistically, and ethnically different. Her body of knowledge does not match the institutional knowledge of the school and she is therefore excluded from home/school conversations.

Build on home experiences. Our assumptions about the home environments of our students can either build or sever links between home and school. An assumption that "these kids don't live in good environments" can destroy the very network we are trying to create. Too often we tell parents what we want them to do at home with no understanding of the rich social interaction that already occurs there (Keenan et al. 1993). One mother expresses her frustrations:

> Whenever I go to school, they want to tell me what to do at home. They want to tell me how to raise my kid. They never ask me what I think. They never ask me anything.

When we asked parents general questions about their home activities and how these activities might build on what happens at school, most thought there was no connection. They claimed not to engage in much reading and writing at home, although their specific answers to questions contradicted this belief. One mother talks about her time at home with her teenage daughter:

> My husband works nights and sometimes she sleeps with me.... We would lay down in bed and discuss the books she reads.

Many of the parents we spoke to mentioned Bible reading as a regular family event, yet they did not see this reading in relation to schoolwork. In one mother's words:

> I read the Bible to the children in Spanish, but when I see they're not understanding me, I stop (laughing). Then they go and look in the English Bible to find out what I said.

Although the Bible is not a text read at public schools, we can build on the literacy practices and social interactions that surround it. For instance, we can draw upon a student's ability to compare multiple versions of a text. We also can include among the texts we read legends, folktales, and mythology—literature that, like the Bible, is meant to teach us about our strengths and weaknesses as we strive to make our lives meaningful.

As teachers, of course, we marvel at the way in which such home interactions do, indeed, support our goals for learning at school; but we won't know about these practices unless we begin to form relationships with parents that allow them to share such knowledge.

Use parent expertise. Moll (1992) underscores the importance of empowering parents to contribute "*intellectually* to the development of lessons." He recommends assessing the "funds of knowledge" in the community, citing a teacher who discovered that many parents in the Latino community where she taught had expertise in the field of construction. Consequently, the class developed a unit on construction, which included reading, writing, speaking, and building, all with the help of responsive community experts—the children's parents.

Parents made similar suggestions—for example, cooking ethnic foods with students, sharing information about multicultural heritage, and bringing in role models from the community. Latino parents repeatedly emphasized that the presence of more teachers from their culture would benefit their children as role models and would help them in home/school interactions.

Parents also suggested extending literacy by writing pen pal letters with students or involving their older children in tutoring and letter writing with younger students. To help break down the barriers that language differences create, one parent suggested that bilingual and monolingual parents form partnerships to participate in school functions together.

An Invitation for Involvement

Too often, the social, economic, linguistic, and cultural practices of parents are represented as serious problems rather than valued knowledge. When we reexamine our assumptions about parental absence, we may find that our interpretations of parents who care may simply be parents who are like us, parents who feel comfortable in the teacher's domain.

Instead of operating on the assumption that absence translates into noncaring, we need to focus on ways to draw parents into the schools. If we make explicit the multiple ways we value the language, culture, and knowledge of the parents in our communities, parents may more readily accept our invitations. ■

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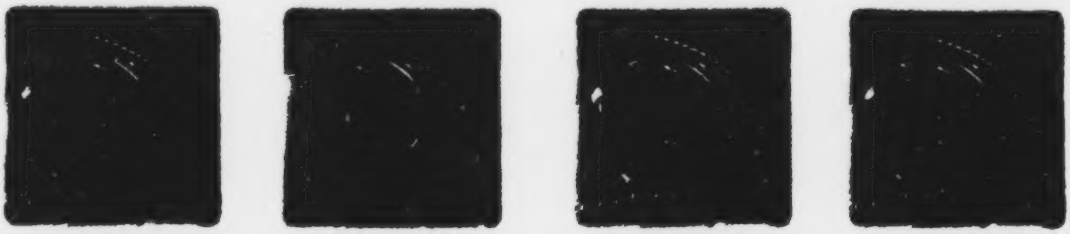

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Schools and Families Working Together for Children

by Andrea G. Zetlin, Bruce Campbell, Martha Lujan, and Ruben Lujan

The belief that enhanced family involvement in the educational process promotes greater academic success has encouraged educators to actively pursue stronger home-school connections. Attempts to translate the rhetoric of family-school partnership into action, however, have proved difficult, especially in schools with students from low socioeconomic and culturally diverse backgrounds (Chrispeels 1991). As schools have sought to strengthen their alliance with families, educators and parents have differed as to why so many parents, especially poor and minority families, have low involvement in their children's schooling and what meaningful family involvement entails (Chrispeels 1991; Lareau 1987).

Some low-income parents feel schools discourage their involvement and view them as the problem. They believe that stereotypes of poor parents as inadequate caregivers and uninterested in their children's education persist among educators (Brantliner and Guskin 1987). They see the low expectations and negative attitudes held by teachers and administrators as the cause of their children's lack of academic success. Other low-income families refrain from involvement because they feel ill equipped to assist children with schoolwork or participate in school decision making. They defer to the school as the authority on educational issues (Lareau 1987). Although such parents limit involvement to being kept informed about their children's progress in school, they would, nonetheless, like to feel more welcome at the school and in classrooms, and also learn ways to improve their children's academic performance (Chrispeels 1991).

Administrators and teachers, for their part, are reluctant to actively recruit low-income and less-educated parents to participate in school business. Their apprehension stems from doubts about such parents to make sound school-related decisions and from past negative encounters with parents (Comer and Haynes 1991). In many cases, programs designed to support parental involvement are conceptualized as an adjunct to the real business of schools (Powell 1991). The family-school connection is not perceived

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as a dynamic, mutually enhancing process for children, families, and the school.

Successful implementation of programs to more fully involve family members in the education of their children means having to overcome these differences in home and school perceptions. This article presents the story of how one school took steps toward building a more meaningful partnership with families by fostering conditions for involvement in the school and home. The project, a collaborative effort between California State University, Los Angeles, and an urban elementary school, is in its second year and is supported by funds from the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) and the California State Department of Education.

The Setting

Murchison Street School is one of the most complex and lowest achieving schools in the second-largest school district in the country. The Murchison attendance area is located in East Los Angeles, a low-income section of the city where Spanish predominates. Many families live below the poverty line and suffer from inadequate health care, poor nutrition, and unsafe neighborhoods. The school is located in a particularly isolated area where residents are surrounded by railroad tracks on the north, a freeway on the south, a park and county maintenance facilities on the east, and an industrial area on the west. There are few commercial establishments, and transportation is difficult when residents need to shop, visit doctors, or go to county offices.

There are approximately 620 families whose children attend the school that serves 1,050 students in prekindergarten through sixth grade. The student body is 97 percent Latino, 2 percent African-American, and 1 percent Asian-American; 98 percent of the students are eligible for free or reduced cost lunch, 67 percent are eligible for Chapter One funding, and 71 percent are classified as limited English proficient (LEP). There are forty-one classes with an average class size of twenty-eight (six are special education classes with from eight to fourteen students); twenty-three teachers are bilingual in Spanish, eighteen teachers instruct in English only. On standardized reading achievement tests, the median percentile score for first through sixth graders was at the 34th percentile (based on national norms); the bottom 20 percent of students scored below the 6th percentile.

The Program

Year one: Armed with the recognition that (a) the school and family must work together to provide the necessary education and support that students need to improve academic performance, and (b) that families in the area may lack the social capital (i.e., quality community resources including neighborhood, church, child care, work setting, housing, and medical care) to adequately nurture their children (Powell 1991), the school with backing from university faculty reached out to parents by opening a parent center in the school building. The intent of the parent center was to provide a bridge between parents and the school and to facilitate empowerment within the larger community.

In prior years, parents could be seen in large numbers walking their children to school and later waiting at the gate at the end of the school day. They rarely ventured through the school doors to ask questions or make requests of teachers or administrators or attend special events. To create a more cohesive family-school-community bond, the center sponsored activities: a "welcoming place" for parents to congregate informally with other parents and school staff to discuss concerns (i.e., school and personal worries) in a nonthreatening atmosphere; weekly morning and monthly evening meetings (for working parents) to discuss topical issues concerning school and community matters; opportunities to become actively involved in school business, to assist in the development of instructional materials for classroom use, and to sponsor grade-level and school-wide activities (i.e., Family Sports Day, School Clean-Up Day, Red Ribbon Drug Awareness Week, Jump Rope for Heart); and a resource center for providing needed information on coping with life in the inner city, such as referrals for emergency food, housing, and medical services. One of the first orders of business was to have parents nominate and elect a coordinator from their own ranks to assist with the organization of parent center programs and activities.

However, more needed to be done than simply opening the doors of the school and encouraging family participation in school activities. Action was needed to help parents gain confidence in participating in all levels of school life. Knowing that Murchison is located in a community with pressing needs, university and school faculty acted as mentors to guide family members through the formal process of identifying these needs and soliciting assistance. At the start of the year, a questionnaire was developed for

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parents to complete that surveyed their needs and perceived obstacles to service. Participating faculty also listened to parents express needs during workshops and informal conversations. When dental care and other health services were identified as high community needs, the "mentors" discussed the resources available in the larger community and had parents consider the pros and cons of each agency. Together they decided to contact a nearby School of Dentistry to determine its willingness to become involved at Murchison. The dental school had a community outreach program and so agreed to present a workshop to educate parents about dental care needs and preventive treatment.

The school and parents advertised the upcoming workshop and more than 125 parents attended. Although quiet at first, listening politely as dental care information was translated into Spanish, parents became active participants when the dentists solicited concerns about their children's teeth. In a follow-up to the meeting, parents, with guidance from the mentors, organized a letter-writing campaign and expressed their concerns to the dental school: that dental care was an expensive luxury they could not afford; only 10 percent had dental insurance and fewer than twenty-five had taken their children to the dentist during the past year; that it was difficult getting to a dentist; that they had to wait months for appointments at county dental offices; and that they had difficulty communicating with dentists, who rarely spoke Spanish. They also requested assistance from the dental school to bring dental education and dental care to their school. The dental school, overwhelmed by the efforts of parents to reach out and seek help, developed a plan to screen dental care needs of the entire student body (with the assistance of parents who would work alongside dentists recording each student's evaluation) and provide treatment to those with the most severe needs.

> *The dental school, overwhelmed by the efforts of parents to reach out and seek help, developed a plan to screen dental care needs of the entire student body and provide treatment to those with the most severe needs.*

This empowering experience, that was carefully guided from start to finish, gave parents experience and confidence in organizing to exert influence. The mentoring nurtured their leadership skills and gave them an opportunity to learn how to use their voice on behalf of their children and the larger school community.

The weekly meetings with parents, advertised as *platicas*, were another empowering component of the project. The platicas were conducted in English and Spanish by a community liaison and grew in attendance from an initial five or six regulars to more than thirty. The liaison had worked as a health educator and early childhood educator in the community and was a familiar figure to parents. A core of parents attended faithfully each week and others attended as they were able. During the first few weeks, parents viewed the video series *Raising Children in Troubled Times* and discussions followed on such topics as setting limits, communication skills, peer pressure, and household responsibilities. As parents felt more comfortable with the meetings, they suggested other topics of interest such as sexual abuse of children and how to tell children about abusers, children talking back, problems with a divorced spouse, communication in the family, self-esteem, and the parent as teacher. Parents also started requesting outside speakers during both morning and evening to become better informed on such subjects as nutrition, health and dental care, gang prevention, drug and alcohol abuse, and legal aid. Typically forty parents attended morning presentations whereas about 100 to 125 parents were present during evening meetings.

Other activities requested by parents and organized by staff and parents jointly included English as a Second Language (ESL) classes twice a week (for two levels of English proficiency), a weekly handicraft class taught by a parent, and daily calisthenics led by a college-age sibling of a Murchison student. Parents became increasingly involved in school business throughout the year. They actively participated on School Leadership and Parent Advisory Councils and began presenting the principal and teachers with their agenda for meetings. They volunteered in classrooms and on the schoolyard during recess and lunch periods and attended school-wide events in such substantial numbers that special assemblies had to be repeated three times to accommodate the swelling numbers.

Year two: The platicas proved to be a rich source of information about the community, families, and parent-child interaction. The emerging themes provided important feedback for the family support aspect of the program and for the development of year two's program. The main theme to emerge was that of social isolation. This isolation appears to have several sources:

- immigration patterns that break up existing extended-family support systems;
- a high level of conflict in many extended families that some families have attempted to alleviate by increasing either the social or geographical distance between themselves and their other family members;
- an increased awareness of child abuse accompanied by a strong aversion to leaving children in the care of others;
- a rigid response to the very real dangers of their immediate environment;
- the physical isolation of their neighborhood from the surrounding city.

> *Many of the parents described "Aha!" experiences as they understood patterns of behavior they habitually displayed in dealings with others. As alternative practices were presented in class, parents began testing them.*

Although families facing these levels of isolation tend to become dysfunctional, parental responses to the world around them demonstrated a strong concern for their children, a willingness to sacrifice almost anything to protect and support their children, and a desire to respond effectively to perceived and real threats to the physical, emotional, and educational development of their children.

During year two, in addition to the continuation of activities begun during year one, we sought to confront the problem of social isolation by building on the strengths of parents through their participation in a mentor parent program. The intent of the mentor parent program was to train cohorts of parents for involvement in all levels of school life as well as to serve as a school link to families not actively involved in the school who find their life situations especially stressful and complex. The mentor program was designed to be relatively self-sustaining by having mentor parents take over the training of future cohorts of mentor parents on a continuing basis.

Twenty-four family members—mothers and grandmothers—made the commitment to regularly attend the first round of proposed classes. Regular attendance, a necessity for creating a more cohesive, trusting parent group, was especially noteworthy in that the participating family members insisted on this commitment for inclusion in the program and that this level of commitment had been unusual in this community. The mentor program was conducted in English and Spanish and led by Martha and Ruben Lujan, a husband and wife counseling team who met with the parents for three hours each week for a total of ten weeks. Topics covered included parents as active listeners, peers helping peers, problem-solving skills, parents as educators, parents as leaders, and coping with depression. Depression was often discussed during class meetings as parents noted that they and other family members experienced depression in trying to cope with life exigencies. Some cognitive therapy techniques were introduced into the meetings and parents sought referrals to counselors in the integrated services center at Murchison, another component of the school's effort to reach out to families. The center offers an array of health and social services provided by county and community agencies and housed at the school.

Over the course of the ten-week program parents changed in what appeared to be systematic ways with qualitative evidence of at least three stages in this process of growth. The initial stage involved changes in the perception of self. The parents showed signs over time of beginning to believe in and care for themselves. Teachers and counselors alike noted more self-care in the appearance of the mentor parents and more confidence in their presentation of self. One parent remarked that she was "taking a deeper look" at herself as a result of participation in the program. Although confident (and content) with her self-knowledge before, she felt challenged by the program's focus on developing self-awareness and realized there is always more to learn to improve oneself and to help others.

Many of the parents described "Aha!" experiences as they understood patterns of behavior they habitually displayed in dealings with others. As alternative practices were presented in class, parents began testing them. During one class, a mother described how her daughter had questioned, "Why are you so different now?" This parent had recognized that interaction patterns could be changed and began to respond differently to "battles" she often fought with her children and spouse. She even took the time to explain to her daughter the lesson she had learned in the program—to listen and respond instead of immediately reacting—with evident pride.

A second stage emphasized relationships with others. Parents made new efforts to reach out to husbands and children and also relatives, neighbors, and friends outside the family. To begin with, they started re-evaluating relationships with other family members. Ruben's presence as an approachable and interested male led many of the women to re-examine their beliefs about what is possible from men as partners and parents. They felt inspired to make changes in their families and view differently "hopeless situations." Some parents sought counseling at the family center to support adjustments they wanted to make in their relationship with spouses.

Parents reported feeling that they better understood their children's development and were more confident about teaching sons and daughters how to communicate with each other. They felt more capable of interceding when siblings were fighting. Parents described becoming better listeners to their children and more patient with them. They were working on improving communication with spouses about sharing child-rearing and decision-making responsibilities. One parent described how an attempt at "listening" to her argumentative ex-spouse resulted in a financially rewarding visit—after he unloaded all the tensions he was feeling, he gave her twenty dollars to help make ends meet.

Parents also began to share principles discussed in the program with neighbors. As they internalized and began using some of the practices the Lujans presented, they informed others of the usefulness of the techniques. Two single mothers who had been successfully implementing listening and responding practices with their willful children talked with neighbors (who were experiencing similar parenting difficulties) about the difference between reacting and responding as their children challenged their patience.

A third stage featured the development of parents' understanding of the need to foster home conditions to improve school learning. From the discussions on family systems, parents became more aware of family dynamics and were able to see how changing the family environment could help children improve their performance at school. They requested specific instructions on how to help their children do better with schoolwork. They wanted information on local tutoring programs and special education services at the school. Some began to plan for their own literacy development and a few talked about returning to school to complete GED and Associate in Arts degrees. Parents also felt more confident about talking to teachers at the school.

The participants reported that the weekly mentor classes felt increasingly like "family gatherings." They said that over time they could see themselves moving from a group of people who gossiped about others to a group of leaders with the commitment, skills and capacity to mentor the next cohort of mentor parents. The mentor program, and parent center activities overall, have produced for them a "community of parents" who spring to action when a need arises among their neighbors. The parents regularly organize birthday parties and baby showers to celebrate noteworthy events in each other's lives. When two parents succumbed to serious cases of the flu, the other parents realized these families would be short on money for supplies. They brought in cans of food and made large food baskets that they delivered to help the families through the critical period. When a set of quadruplets was born to one family whose older children attend the school, the parents organized a "community" baby shower to solicit gifts for the needy family and offered to spend hours in the home helping the family manage the four infants. This extension of help beyond the school walls was especially noteworthy in that this parent, although known by parents who regularly attend center activities, had not herself been a regular attendee.

Although it is still early to see the full impact of the parent program on student achievement, the most recent achievement data do show gains of a few percentile points in the hoped-for direction. More impressive have been gains in student attendance. Over the past two years, students have gone from an average of 1.4 absences per month to .95 absences per month. The increase in attendance is especially notable during November and December, months in which students had, in previous years, left school to visit family in Mexico. Gains are also evident in the number of students with perfect attendance, up from sixty two years ago to 211 last year.

Conclusion

Schools and parents face a challenge to work together to provide the necessary education and support that children need to achieve optimum success. To do this, parents must continue to be involved with the school and schools must continue to reach out to parents (Berger 1991). School-home collaboration will help provide avenues for children to find success both in and after school, but both school and family must recognize their responsibilities. Neither can expect the other to accomplish the task alone; it is a collaborative effort. The efforts of this one school to reach out have resulted in giving parents increased confidence and increased access to those structures of power and influence that shape the learning experiences of their children (Comer and Haynes 1991). As Comer and Haynes suggest, such activities should result in changes at both the family and school levels and these changes should reduce inequalities by providing the less advantaged parents with the additional resources needed to build and maintain educational partnerships between home and school. ■

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Collaboration in Schools Serving Students with Limited English Proficiency and Other Special Needs

by Sandra H. Fradd, University of Miami

Learning to work cooperatively and collaboratively with others to address the needs of specific students is not easy. Few educators have training in this area. Although collaborative cross-disciplinary programs are beginning to appear in schools, few school personnel have had training in applying multicultural concepts to addressing the needs of learners with disabilities and limited proficiency in English.

Collaboration across disciplines and grade levels cannot occur without an organizational structure that promotes interaction and communication. The local school level is the arena where collaboration can have an immediate impact on students. Although there is a strong movement toward collaboration, there are still many obstacles to be overcome in assisting special needs students with limited proficiency in English. This digest will discuss the development of collaboration at the school level to meet the needs of these students.

Barriers to Collaboration

Some barriers to collaboration have grown out of federal and state funding policies and practices. Territorial and political perceptions, as well as legal realities like weighted funding categories and requirements for program participation, stand in the way of promoting effective integrated programs. While the services to be provided through special programs were designed to assist students, supplemental and resource programs have had the effect of fragmenting instruction and promoting competition among funding recipients.

Changing Perceptions of Collaboration

Changes in educators' orientation toward collaboration have grown out of changes in the ways that effective instruction and school organization are perceived. The evolution of indicators for effective schools has occurred through research and practice founded on a belief in the importance of success for all students, not just for those who are academically talented (Fradd & Weismantel, 1989). An important aspect of the emergence of collaboration is the shift from a perception of the principal and teachers as solely responsible for educational outcomes to the perception of education as a process that includes teachers, parents, and students throughout (Stedman, 1987). The evaluation of the ways that schools involve the people who work and learn there continues as the press for multicultural equity and equality becomes more widespread and insistent.

> **Collaboration across disciplines and grade levels cannot occur without an organizational structure that promotes interaction and communication.**

Promoting Collaboration

Teachers, parents, and community members can encourage collaboration through informal as well as more formal interactions. Volunteering to assist others and sharing perspectives are means of promoting collaboration. Teachers and parents can influence administrators and policy makers by asking the kinds of questions that focus on process as well as on results; however, schoolwide collaboration and program integration are difficult without administrative support (Heron & Harris, 1987). Effective collaboration models exist (see, e.g., Allington & Broikou, 1988), but few of these models include the cultural and linguistic diversity that often complicate the collaborative process (Baca & Cervantes, 1989; Corma, 1989).

Collaboration Among Teachers

Collaboration can occur through informal interpersonal interaction and through structured formal interactions. Both are important and can provide positive outcomes. But collaboration across multicultural populations poses particular problems. At the informal level, collaborators gravitate toward those with whom they feel comfortable and compatible--often people with similar values and perspectives. However, this tendency to select persons with similar ideas and cultural backgrounds usually promotes the status quo. When people with different values enter the collaborative process, their ideas may be misunderstood and rejected unless the collaborators are prepared to deal with different ways of thinking and communicating (Fradd, 1991, in press).

One of the first steps in initiating formal collaboration across disciplines is the identification of the specific areas of interest, need, or expertise in each discipline that affect instruction. Each educator has strengths and limitations. For example, few regular education teachers are able to communicate in languages other than English; special education personnel may fail to comprehend the complexities of working with culturally diverse students and families; bilingual educators may lack an understanding of regular or special education requirements or curricula.

On the other hand, bilingual and ESOL teachers usually know about the development of students' English skills

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and how particular students compare with others of the same age from the same language background. They know how to integrate language development information with subject matter instruction and how to reduce the language demands of the task while maintaining a focus on the content of the lesson. These teachers usually are in close contact with parents, siblings, and the ethnic communities. They may be able to serve as cultural informants to help teachers and administrators address cultural as well as subject matter requirements of the students (Fradd & Weismantel, 1989).

Regular classroom teachers can compare the performance of individual special needs students with that of mainstream students. They observe the students interacting with peers and know the students with whom the target students prefer to interact. These teachers also notice the types of activities that motivate students and are aware of the ways in which particular students approach or avoid tasks (Baca & Cervantes, 1989)

Special education teachers are experienced at developing effective behavior management programs, breaking the learning process into specific steps, and instructing students in useful strategies for approaching and mastering academic content. They observe behaviors and record and monitor learning. These facts can be useful in developing effective plans and programs.

Unfortunately, teachers are often unaware of the types of information available from their potential collaborators; thus they may not ask each other for specific information or request advice in developing instructional plans. In an informal collaborative setting, contributions from those of varying backgrounds may be neglected. The establishment of formal collaborative procedures can facilitate the exchange of information and ideas among different teachers and help foster the development of a collaborative and cooperative atmosphere that may lead to informal collaboration in the future.

Cooperative Planning

Strategies have been developed for establishing and maintaining collaboration to assist LEP students with mild disabilities. One such strategy is referred to as "cooperative planning" (Hudson & Fradd, 1990). An important feature of this strategy is that none of the personnel involved is recognized as more of an authority than the others. All are considered equals within their areas of expertise and all have areas in which they can develop new skills for working with LEP students. The steps in cooperative planning listed below can be implemented through formal planned procedures or through informal interactions among colleagues.

- Establish meeting times
- Establish and maintain rapport
- Discuss demands of each instructional setting
- Target the students
- Specify and summarize data
- Discuss student information

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from the current maximum five percent of prior-year part A grants within the State to ten percent. Although a data collection plan is required, the Administration's proposed bill does not require the States to submit annual reports as required under part B of current law. The loss of these reports would seriously hamper our knowledge about the LEP population and the educational services available to LEP students and their families.

To receive a State grant under part B of the Administration's legislative proposal, a State would have to demonstrate that it has in place a plan, developed pursuant to Goals 2000 or Chapter 1, that provides for the education of LEP students. Additionally, the State would be required to establish a State advisory panel to develop and recommend to the SEA guidelines for commenting on parts A and C applications.

Part C of the Education Department's Title VII legislative proposal essentially continues current training programs. There is an authorization for national professional development institutes, but no details on how the institutes would operate. Similarly, the Department's draft legislation would continue the current fellowship programs, but does not specify the number of fellowships to be provided.

Drastic Change in the Emergency Immigrant Education Program

The Administration's legislative proposal moves the provisions regarding administration of Title VII from part D of current law to part E, making part D available for a drastically revised Emergency Immigrant Education (EIE) Program. For starters, the bill converts the EIE from a formula funded program, which provides relatively unrestricted aid to local educational agencies (LEAs) to defray some of the costs associated with significant immigrant student enrollments, to a competitive discretionary grant program focused on instructional programs. The bill also increases the minimum number of immigrant students who must be enrolled in order for a LEA to qualify for a grant from a minimum of 500 students or three percent of total student enrollment to 1000 students or ten percent of total school enrollment. The third change is that the bill redefines "immigrant students" as those students, "aged three through twenty-one who were not born in any State and have not been attending one or more schools in any one or more States for more than 12 months." This contrasts with the current requirement that immigrant students include all students not born in any States and who have been attending schools in any or more States for less than three complete academic years. Aside from the dubious policy proposition that LEAs should receive aid only for the first year immigrant students are enrolled in American schools, the less than one-year qualification would appear to wreak havoc with the operation of the proposed competitive grant program. Under the Department's proposal, a LEA applying for an EIE Program grant would have to submit an application that describes "the need for the proposed program, including data on the number of immigrant children and youth in the districts to be served and their characteristics...." In all likelihood, the less-than-one-year-of-schooling immigrants identified in an application would no longer be deemed "immigrants" by the time the Department of Education made the grant and the LEA program was implemented. The new part E of the Depart-ment's proposed Title VII legislation, pertaining to the administration of Title VII does not, contrary to NABE's recommendation, elevate the position of Director of OBEMLA to the Assistant Secretary level.

Finally, the Department's proposed Title VII legislation includes a new part F which states that no current grant recipient shall be eligible for fourth- and fifth-year renewal awards provided under current law. Part F contains no other transition provisions regarding multi-year grants and contracts under Title VII.

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- Determine discrepancies between student skills and teacher expectations
- Plan instruction intervention and monitoring system
- Implement the plan and follow up as needed

Collaborative skills can be developed by meeting regularly to discuss student needs and to monitor student progress. This process can also allow educators to determine the specific interventions that lead toward success (Damico & Nye, 1991).

Collaboration with Parents

Once teachers have begun successful cooperation among themselves, they may also want to involve the students' families. The school experience for LEP students, and probably for many others, is likely to be viewed from different perspectives by the many people involved--the most extreme differences usually occurring between family members and school personnel (Casanova, 1990). Recognition of these potential differences was acknowledged in federal legislation that requires that parents be included in the planning process when students are placed in special education programs (Casanova, 1990). Without information from the parents, many assumptions may be made about the students that do not reflect the parents' perspective. Parents can provide important information about the student's status and behavior in the family and in the community, as well as information about family and community norms.

In addition to parent programs that promote a general understanding of the school system, specific programs for fostering understanding and collaboration between families and the school can be developed (FIRST, 1991). Means of assessing the family's

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present circumstances in order to provide understanding and support include obtaining information on the family's resources, their interactional styles, and the ways family members participate in the community (Correa, 1989). Learning about the family's experiences prior to and since their arrival in the United States, their religious beliefs and practices, parenting practices, and roles ascribed to family members and close friends can also help the school plan collaborative programs and activities with family members (Correa, 1989).

Involving family members in the teaching process can benefit students, families, and the school community in general. Interaction between families and schools can enhance understanding of school practices and school culture in addition to promoting learning activities in the home. Instructional programs using the home language as well as English provide the greatest opportunities for family participation as this type of collaboration is fostered through direct communication between the home and school in the language that is most comfortable for the family members. A number of books and programs are available for encouraging parent involvement in bilingual literacy development (see, e.g., Saunders, 1986). Suggestions for involving parents in school programs include the following:

- cultural events and activities that involve students and families;
- displays of student art and other products that families can enjoy;
- written and oral communication in the language of the home;
- designated school personnel from whom families can obtain information about school events, student achievement, and concerns;
- trained interpreters and translators to serve as informants and communicators in working with families and school personnel;
- handbooks and written forms available in the languages of the families represented in the school; and
- trained personnel to discuss student performance and school culture with families.

Conclusion

In an era of decreasing resources and rapidly increasing student diversity, collaboration is an essential strategy for enhancing resource utilization and program cost effectiveness. Collaboration can also provide the means to meet the educational needs of many students in mainstream and special education settings. As administrators, teachers, and parents learn to collaborate, they increase learning opportunities for themselves and for their children.

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Improving the Achievement of Hispanic Students

Christopher K. Howe

Two exploratory studies offer suggestions for addressing the educational needs of our fastest growing student population.

Compared to blacks or whites, Hispanics enter school later, leave school earlier, and are less likely to complete high school and enter or complete college. They remain the most undereducated major segment of the U.S. population," asserts the National Council of La Raza (De La Rosa and Maw 1990). To those who say that the answer is simply, "Get tough," the research replies, "It doesn't work with this group." For example, while efforts to increase course requirements correlate somewhat with better academic achievement among many groups, they have had no measurable positive effect on Hispanic students (General Accounting Office 1989).

The ever-growing presence of Hispanic students is a phenomenon that has already dramatically affected our school systems, in larger urban areas more than any other. Indeed, to use the adjectives "explosive" or "overwhelming" is not hyperbolic.

Students with Roots in Latin America

Already 1 in 12 persons living in this country can trace his or her origins to Latin America. Since 1980, this population has increased at a rate five times that of non-Hispanic whites, African Americans, and Asians combined.

Not surprisingly, these statistics are mirrored in our schools. Already 1 in 10 eighth graders is Hispanic, and demographic projections indicate a nearly 3 percent increase in their numbers for the rest of the 1990s, more than doubling the increase among African Americans during this same period, while non-Hispanic white youth will actually see their numbers decline by almost 4 percent (Hodgkinson 1992).

Even though the 1973 Supreme Court case *Lau v. Nichos* directed schools to "provide an education comprehensible to limited-English-proficient (LEP) students," administrators without a thorough knowledge of the particular needs of Hispanics have found themselves scrambling to provide curriculums and programs.

At every grade level, a higher percentage of Hispanic children lags behind their modal grade than either non-Hispanic whites or blacks. By the 12th grade, about 48 percent are so categorized. Three out of four 8th graders cannot pass a test of simple mathematical operations using decimals or fractions. Hispanics are consistently less likely to be placed in programs for the gifted than any other ethnic group.

Many mistakes could easily be avoided if staff members were simply made aware of unique cultural dynamics Hispanic children are raised with.

In addition, their SAT scores are significantly below the average. This statistic is all the more distressing when one considers that since 1975, other minorities have made greater strides in improving their subtest scores. In 1991, Mexican-American students scored on the average 45 points below the national average on the math section (Hodgkinson 1992, De La Rosa and Maw 1990, National Center for Education Statistics 1992).

Lucas, Henze, and Donato (1990) have noted that much of the research conducted on "effective schooling" for Hispanics has largely ignored the difficulties they face outside school. For example, Hispanic 8th graders are almost twice as likely as African Americans to be approached by drug dealers, and are only somewhat less likely to have something stolen from them.

Further, few Hispanic teachers are available as role models. The ratio of white non-Hispanic students to white non-Hispanic teachers is 17:1; for African Americans the ratio stands at 40:1. For Hispanics, however, this student-to-teacher ratio soars to 64:1 (Hodgkinson 1992).

Nonetheless, the disastrously high dropout rate among Hispanic youth must rank as the most troubling dynamic of this population. Since 1972, the percentage of white non-Hispanics who drop out of school fell by almost 4 percent, and the African-American dropout rate improved some 8 percent. In 1972, 34 percent of Hispanics dropped out before graduation; by 1991 this statistic had risen to 35 percent. What are we to do, and where should we start?

Photos by Christopher K. Howe

Advice Based on Research

My review of the literature over the past several years discovered only two systematic studies of effective education for the Hispanic community. The first comes from Lucas, Henze, and Donato (1990), who conducted interviews at six urban Hispanic-majority secondary schools that were judged to be successful in their educational programs. From their observations, the researchers identified several actions the school staffs routinely performed that led to positive effects.

1. Place value on the students' languages and cultures. Teachers and staff should attempt to gain a rudimentary command of the Spanish language. In addition, they should not punish students for using their native language in contexts where English is not expressly called for.

At the very least, teachers should become knowledgeable about the various Hispanic cultures. Let us not forget that although "Hispanic" is a convenient label for many of us, most Hispanics consider themselves first and foremost Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Colombians, and so forth. A child from a Mexican family learns certain customs utterly unknown in a Cuban family, and vice versa.

While touring a largely Hispanic school in the Pilsen neighborhood of Chicago, I noticed that the teachers had set aside a separate space, bright and ample, for cultural projects. At that moment, a team of middle school students was constructing out of clay a model of the ancient Aztec city of Tenochtitlán (present-day Mexico City). They had been encouraged to study the architecture and *raison d'être* of its structures, temple worship, and historical significance in the light of Spain's eventual conquest of the region.

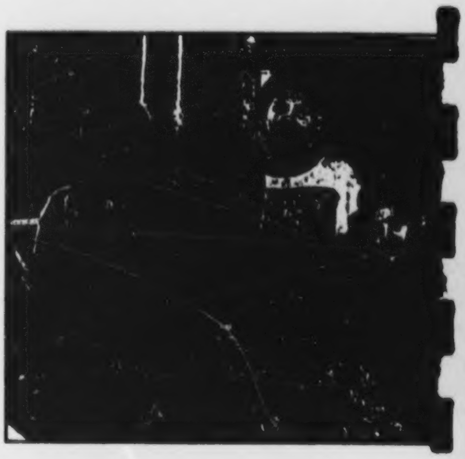
2. Set high expectations for language-minority students. Educators can, for example, enable students to exit ESL programs quickly, offer bilingual advanced and honors courses, ask colleges to send Hispanic recruiters, and invite Hispanic graduates to return to school to encourage their peers. Further, they should not assume that these students' language barriers make it difficult, if not impossible, for them to succeed. Keep the standards high for them, and they will respond in kind.

3. Design staff development to help teachers and other staff serve language-minority students more effectively. Target programs that address the cultural dynamics of this population and teach strategies shown to be successful with Hispanic students. Many common and harmful mistakes could easily be avoided if staff members were simply made aware of the cultural dynamics Hispanic children are raised with.

For instance, I have overheard several teachers absolutely infuriated with their Hispanic students because whenever they were admonished, they would look down at the floor and not at the authority figure addressing them. For us, *not* looking at someone is a sign of disrespect; however, in most Hispanic cultures, looking at someone directly while being corrected is a sign of defiance!

4. Design counseling programs that give special attention to language-minority students. Obviously, counselors who speak Spanish can more effectively address problems originating in the home. Further, counselors should investigate grants, endowments, and other financial aid available to Hispanic high school graduates for college study.

5. Encourage parents of language-minority students to become involved in their children's education. There are numerous ways to accomplish this: offer ESL class to the parents, hold monthly parents' nights, schedule neighborhood meetings, and arrange parent-teacher conferences for the morning hours. This final suggestion is crucial at a time when most U.S. households have both dad and mom working outside the home. This is all the more true among the poor, who are often subject to working the least desirable shifts.



In addition, our whole concept of

"family" in the Hispanic culture needs to be revised. The nuclear family, now so much a part of our mind-set, is very alien to Hispanics. For them, cousins and grandparents are as much "family" as are siblings and parents; frequently, all live in the same household. *Padrinos* (godparents) play as great a role in the upbringing of children as do parents. School files should contain the names, addresses, and phone numbers not only of the biological parents but also of these "spiritual" parents, the *padrinos*, so that invitations to school meetings and functions can be sent to these extended family members.

6. Build a strong commitment among school staff members to empower language-minority students through education. Lucas, Henze, and Donato (1990) call this action "the most fundamental ... and the most difficult to describe in concrete terms." It is largely demonstrated in those intangible but powerful "investments" that caring teachers make, like tutoring a student during lunch or calling at night to see how a student is getting along with classmates.

It can include more, however. When students see that their teachers and administrators are aware of the social and political pressures their parents face, and are actively engaged in helping "the system" assist their families, they too become invested in the process of education.

Tools for Bridging the Gap

Other suggestions for improving the educational performance of Hispanic students come from the Hispanic Policy Development Project, Inc., of New York. Reporting on the study, Nicolau and Ramos (1990) claim that the keys are "strong personal outreach, nonjudgmental communication, and the ability to convey respect for the parents' feelings and concerns." Such communication, they acknowledge, takes lots of time, "perseverance," and "creativity." Finally, Nicolau and Ramos maintain that "all the programs that lacked the support of teachers and principals failed to increase Hispanic parent involvement."

What these researchers mean by a "personal outreach" is *not* sending letters. It is phone calls, home visits, and personal greetings by principals and/or teachers at the school door. It must be remembered that new immigrants are often distrustful of "institutions."

Before coming to this largely Hispanic area, I taught at an upper-middle class high school, where the parents were impressed by sharp presentations and five-year development plans. My experience of Hispanic parents, however, is that they much prefer getting to know the teacher and principals personally, sitting down with them, and sharing their struggles and their dreams. The more humanized and warm the environment, the more they respond. At one school in the study, for example, the principal and teachers invited all the parents to a McDonald's and waited on them!

Being nonjudgmental and respectful of their concerns involves giving families the tools to bridge the gap between their native culture and our own. Too often, administrators imply that Hispanic parents must discard everything that is not "true-blue American." When a parent asks a question that appears "stupid," remember that these newcomers may not be aware of even the most rudimentary elements of our educational systems. How could they be?

Time for a New Approach

Admittedly, little systematic research on Hispanic students exists, and what does is not empirical in nature. Clearly, however, what we're currently doing is not working.

Considering the unique challenges—and the wonderful potential—that Hispanic students bring to our nation's schools, we must break free of our preconceived notions, prejudices, and jingoistic demands and respond energetically and positively. Our fastest growing student population certainly isn't going to go away. By extending our best efforts to these children and youth, we all stand to benefit. ■

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INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION FOR TOMORROW'S CITIZENS

INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS EXPERT SAYS IF GLOBAL LITERACY IS THE DESTINATION, SCHOOLS HAVE A LONG ROUTE TO TRAVEL

BY H. THOMAS COLLINS
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"Send me everything you have on the world."

That request, taken from a little girl's letter to the editor of *The New York Times*, neatly identifies our problem in global education: There's a lot of world out there to learn about.

And from all available evidence, public schools today are not doing nearly as well as they might in educating students about that world.

The late Robert Hutchins, founder of the Great Books Program, once described the state of mind of most elementary and secondary educators attempting to deal with the complexities of international relations: "The world we are living in is totally new, and since it has become so overnight, our ideas are obsolete or obsolescent ... we are living without theory, or what is worse, we are living on the debris of outworn or disproved theory. Our minds are like attics filled with abandoned and useless furniture."

In all facets of our lives, the world around us is changing dramatically—terrifyingly so in some ways. Generals trained to lead bayonet charges now command flights of helicopter gunships; admirals schooled in battleship tactics now are expected to effectively deploy nuclear submarines and intercontinental ballistic missiles. Doctors daily prescribe medicines and practice techniques unknown when they were in medical school. Businesses use electronic communications unknown outside the laboratory a few years ago. And people travel at near supersonic speeds worldwide to sell goods and products that the founders of their corporations never heard of or dreamed about.

Change, in all aspects of our lives, has become the norm—with one unfortunate exception. In too many schools, we are still teaching about the world as if it were a 1939 map. In too many classrooms, the dramatic changes that have altered the world are ignored completely or relegated to a weekly current events activity with little, if any, relationship to the curriculum.

Nearly 25 years ago, in a report prepared for the U.S. Office of Education describing the status of federally supported efforts to revise international education curriculum, I wrote: "The projects have chosen to avoid consideration of such topics as the impact of corporations on global society; the mounting problems associated with population increases; the pressing need to establish worldwide control of pollution; the ever-widening gulf between the 'haves' and the 'have-nots' of our world; the desirability of having available some form of supranational order or control to assure peace; the whole complex area of foreign policy decision-making; the growing role of regional organizations and common markets; as well as many other similar significant problems and challenges facing our students as they move into the role of tomorrow's leaders.

"In other words, the projects have not been as future-oriented as one would have hoped they would be. This lack of significant emphasis upon the future—plus the usual long delay in getting any new ideas and materials accepted into the curriculum—is bound to sharply limit the likelihood that what is taught to tomorrow's students will differ appreciably from what is being taught today."

Sensible Approach

The state of global studies in too many schools has changed little in 25 years. This is particularly disturbing because in a democratic society, where public opinion heavily affects the continuum of choices available to the country's leaders, a realistic knowledge of the problems facing the world is even more critical.

In coming years, our citizens will need to be patient of provocations from abroad, understanding of differences among nations, sophisticated in evaluating "solutions" put forward from many quarters, and concerned enough to act to enhance the possibilities of a more peaceful and just world. In short, our educational system must seek to produce a remarkably mature and informed citizenry. The elementary and secondary grades will have to carry the main burden in doing so.

Observation, experience, and research regarding teaching practices in the international dimension indicate the present "piecemeal" approach is not working. The keys to success are common sense but rarely are found:

- a well-informed, skillful, and enthusiastic teacher;
- workable criteria for selecting the significant issues;
- adequate teaching materials; and
- time.

All these must be incorporated into a school and community atmosphere that supports the teacher and forces school systems to reorganize in ways that more closely reflect the needs of today's students and less resemble the "abandoned and useless furniture" Hutchins mentioned.

Present Challenge

There is simply no way to ensure every student will be adequately prepared to understand every possible worldwide event that will capture tomorrow's headlines. Given that our country educates more students than the entire populations of all but 15 or so of the world's nations, many of the excuses we hear about our failure to educate internationally are understandable.

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The magnitude of the task is staggering, particularly given the other demands society places on public schools. But the task exists, nonetheless, and it is the responsibility of schools and their leaders to carry it out.

Charles Frankel, a professor of philosophy and public affairs at Columbia University, captured our challenge as educators when he wrote: "We can ignore the international scene; we can courteously salute its existence and then go on as though nothing was affected; we can recognize how little we really know or really feel about the facts of life in other parts of the world and take steps to repair this state of affairs.

"Whatever we do, however, we make a decision that has not only national but international import. We shall educate or miseducate for world responsibility. We cannot avoid doing one or the other."

Sharing Blame

Our failure to develop a globally literate citizenry never should be blamed entirely on teachers. Sufficient blame exists for all to share: institutions of higher education, which often totally fail to prepare prospective teachers adequately; school systems that fail to insist that the teachers they hire are globally literate; school boards that show no interest or inadequately support international education; state leadership that fails to insist the international dimension be emphasized; school administrators convinced that other things always are more pressing; or members of the public who somehow believe "international" or "global" or "world" is, at best, an unnecessary frill or, at worst, an insidious plot designed to weaken children's loyalties to their family, church, or nation.

Knowing these conditions are real doesn't make the task any easier, but it does allow us to be more clearheaded about the situation facing us. John Gardner, founder of Common Cause, has aptly written, "Clearheadedness does not slay dragons, but it spares us the indignity of fighting paper dragons while the real ones are breathing down our necks."

School administrators already are experienced in "fighting dragons," so consider the following weapons to use to avoid fighting the battle against global illiteracy barehanded.

What Can You Do?

The following baker's dozen of IDEAS (Inventory, Develop, Examine, Analyze, and Sources) require time and effort. Most of all they require the will to act.

First step is an inventory of the present condition.

- *Inventory your staff.*

An often overlooked fact about classrooms is crucial: teachers teach what teachers know! Unless they are comfortable presenting a topic, they will do their best to deal with it superficially or, if possible, skip it entirely. Teachers teach what they know and what interests them, regardless of the required syllabus or course of studies.

Your first task is to inventory your teaching staff to identify those who need help in presenting world/international/global studies, and determine what help they say they need.

Absolutely no one can feel adequately educated to teach effectively about even a few world nations or regions. About the time one feels comfortable with a geographic region, say the former Soviet Union or the nations in sub-Sahara Africa or Central America, everything changes. And these are areas in which teachers probably received some training during their formal education. What about Korea, Vietnam, Lebanon, Afghanistan, Iran, Iraq, Grenada, Biafra, Azerbaijan, Eastern Europe, or the former Yugoslavia? Before these countries became "flashpoints" and captured the news headlines, none was included in any school's curriculum. They were certainly not included in the education of most future teachers.

Keeping current on these and other fast-breaking global events is not unlike trying to drink from a fully opened fire hydrant. It's too much to handle. Yet we expect teachers to do so effectively. It's not impossible, but certainly difficult, so only the ablest, hardest working, and most dedicated teachers even try. After a while, the rest simply give up and resort to "covering" the textbook. One dictionary definition of *cover* is "to take in and hide from view." For years teachers have been covering world areas so well their students seldom ever think of them again.

School leaders must find ways to guarantee that those responsible for teaching about the world know about the world. Even a small amount spent on regular staff development activities to keep teachers current on world areas and events will be repaid many times over in your classrooms.

- *Take a bold step.*

Frequently, school systems attempting to change their curriculum fail not because the proposed changes are too radical, but because the desired change is too modest. If teachers are to take any change seriously, it must not allow them to fall back on doing the "same old stuff," while supposedly doing something new.

The best proof of this I know about took place in the early 1970s when North Carolina mandated a course change for all seventh grade students. "North Carolina Life and History"

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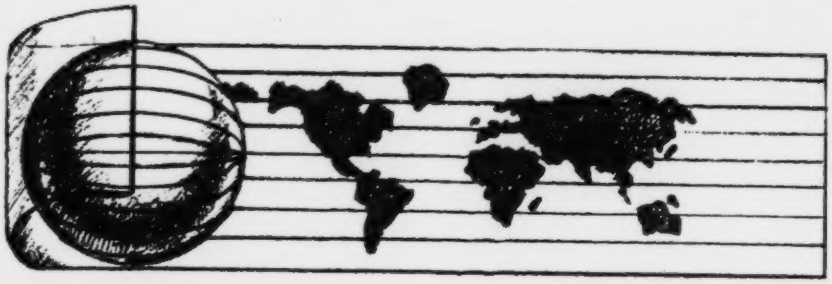
was replaced by "Africa, Asia, and the Pacific." I can still hear the moans of anguished seventh grade teachers—particularly those who had taught the eliminated course for years.

To the surprise of many, this massive change worked. Why? Simply because the teachers could not fall back on their tried and true lessons and materials, but were forced to become familiar with entirely new content, textbooks, ancillary materials, tests, and teaching strategies and techniques. Having been involved in this successful statewide reform convinces me the best way—perhaps the only effective and realistic way to bring about curricular change—is to make it so dramatic that in spite of some initial individual apprehension and discomfort, teachers are required to begin with a clean slate and start from scratch, instead of merely tinkering with present coursework. Remember, you can't cross a chasm in several small jumps.

- *Inventory your community.*



Every community has human and organizational resources that can be used to enhance your school system's efforts to improve global literacy, whether you are located in Troy, Terre Haute, Topeka, or Tracy. Ask some volunteers to inventory the community to identify and catalog potentially useful resources. Better still, make it a class or independent study project in civics or government classes.

Develop Objectives

- *An official school district policy statement on the goals and objectives for international education can be useful.*

Several states already have done considerable work in this area. Before developing your own goals and objectives, check what Minnesota, long a leader in global/international education, has developed. "Model Learner Outcomes for International Education," published in 1991, is worth obtaining from the Minnesota Department of Education, Curriculum and Instruction Manager, 631 Capital Square Building, St. Paul, Minn. 55101, or by calling Roger Wangen, program specialist in social studies/ international education, at 612-296-4076.

- *Develop official policy.*

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Having such a statement often convinces otherwise reluctant or hesitant faculty that this dimension of the curriculum is important and requires more attention. Not having one easily conveys the opposite impression. (For guidance, obtain the National School Boards Association's Policy Handbook on Global Education.)

• *Examine your curriculum.*

While you can supplement your efforts to improve students' world understanding through exchange students, community resources, foreign guests or visitors to the area, local college and university staff, or TV specials, what counts most is what every student in every classroom is expected to learn.

In most school systems, the international dimension of a student's education often has all the consistency of uncooked rice; nothing sticks together! What a student is exposed to in grades K-12 does not add up to a coherent program worthy of the name. Some students, by chance, learn a lot. Others, often the majority, do not.

Has your school system ever made an effort to examine systematically exactly what every student is taught about the world, its peoples, and its problems during his or her experience? For now, forget the Advanced Placement history courses or the electives. What does the typical student experience? What lessons, units, and courses having global content are required?

Identify this common core as the first step in planning future program improvements. If you don't know where you are now, it's hard to plan how to get where you want to be. Unfortunately, much of what passes for curriculum change omits this critical first step. Instead, supposedly positive changes are hurriedly implemented.

Assess Materials

• *Examine all textbooks.*

This is critical because, in most cases, the textbooks are the curriculum. If outdated, inaccurate, biased, or otherwise faulty, those using them should know. Expert opinion is available on all world areas.

Federally funded language and area studies centers on university campuses are one example. You may obtain a listing of all these Title VI Language and Area Studies Centers by contacting the Center for International Education, U.S. Department of Education, Attn: NRC/FLAS, ROB-3 Room 3053, Washington, D.C. 20202-5331, or by calling 202-708-7283.

Resources for Global Education

Organizations

American Forum for Global Education, 45 John St., Suite 908, New York, N.Y. 10038, 212-732-8606.

Center for Teaching International Relations, University of Denver, 2199 S. University Blvd., Denver, Colo. 80208, 303-871-2164.

SPICE (Stanford Program on International and CrossCultural Education), Littlefield Center, Room 14, 300 Lasuen St., Stanford University, Stanford, Calif. 94305-5013, 415-723-1114.

Peace Corps of the United States, Office of World Wise Schools, 1990 K St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20526, 202-606-3294.

Mershon Center, Ohio State University, 199 W. 10th Ave., Columbus, Ohio 43201, 614-292-1681.

Social Studies Development Center, Indiana University, 2805 East Tenth St., Bloomington, Ind. 47405, 812-855-3838.

Publications

An Attainable Global Perspective, by R. Hanvey, 1977. American Forum for Global Education.

Global Education: From Thought To Action, 1991. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1250 N. Pitt St., Alexandria, Va. 22314, 703-549-9110.

Getting Started in Global Education: A Primer for Principals and Teachers, 1982. National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1615 Duke St., Alexandria, Va. 22314, 703-684-3345.

Bulletin: The International Curriculum Setting Directions for the '90s, 1990. National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1904 Association Drive, Reston, Va. 22091, 703-860-0200.

Global Studies Series (annual). Dushkin Publishing Group, Sluice Dock, Guilfort, Conn. 06437-9989, 800-243-6532.

World Eagle Inc., 64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, Mass. 02181-5224, 800-634-3805.

Obviously, if individuals on your staff or community residents have extensive experience in the geographic regions covered by your textbooks, you might ask them to critique the books. Move cautiously, however. Remember, one swallow does not a summer make! Nor does one brief visit to any nation an "expert" make!

Brief exposures to other cultures often are followed immediately by developing curriculum. This can be useful, but it also may perpetuate stereotypes and partial untruths about places and cultures different from our own. If persons native to other areas or cultures can be identified and enlisted to participate in this process, so much the better.

• *Assess supplementary materials.*

How accurate and current are the materials? Will they pass muster with experts on that geographic region or topic?

Also, take a hard look at the resources in your system's libraries and media centers. What is on hand that is of use in presenting the world? Do you have resources published or produced in other nations or written by individuals who are native to other cultures? What about periodicals from outside the United States?

What audiovisual resources are available? Are they limited to only those produced here, thus representing a single, generally Western or Eurocentric perspective? In our multicultural, pluralistic world, to have one's views limited to a single perspective greatly limits the chances of ever developing the sensitivity and understanding required of an effective citizen.

To perform intelligently at the ballot box or in the market place, today's citizen must understand how virtually every personal decision affects, and in turn is affected by, global forces and events.

Assess Environment

• *Analyze the tone or feel of your district's schools.*

If you walk into one of your buildings when school is not in session, what do you see or experience that tells you the remainder of the world is important to those who daily occupy this place?

Artwork, pictures, artifacts, maps, flags, or other products of other cultures on display tell everyone the people these items represent are important to us. Much as our own homes reflect what we value and cherish, a school's decor says much about the values held by those who work there. Directional signs in languages other than English also indicate these languages and the people they represent are important. Native speakers of these languages particularly will appreciate this gesture when they visit the school.

The school may be the only place in a child's world where he or she may ever experience art, music, literature, foods, or other reflections of other cultures. In our diverse and changing world, the role of the school in providing other perspectives on reality becomes even more important. Plato said, "What is valued in a culture, is honored there."

- *Analyze the current national standard setting and testing activities to see how they handle the international dimension.*

Some subjects, obviously, contribute more to better international teaching and learning. But all subjects can contribute in developing students' international literacy.

Because many believe national standards, as well as national tests, will have a way of becoming a national curriculum (in spite of denials by those developing them), it makes sense to find out about the fit of what you're already doing or plan to do with international education.

Also, look at your current requirements in grades K-12 and any standardized tests you now administer. How is the international perspective represented? Do these tests and your academic requirements accurately reflect your policy statement, goals, and objectives?

It's no secret: Show me your tests and examinations and I will tell you what's important. The students know this, parents know this, and the public that maintains and supports your schools certainly knows this. If the realities of today's world are not central to all of your evaluation efforts, they will remain unimportant.

Selected Resources

- *Dip into the growing pool of materials.*

As in other areas in education, international/global education has spawned its own substantial body of literature. Some is useful; much is less so.

The resource list (see page 29) contains a few items that, in my judgment, represent a good "starter kit" for school leaders new to the field and serve as an excellent review for those more experienced. Many are not recent publications, having been written a generation or more ago. They are included, however, because what they say has not been improved upon significantly or, in many cases, equaled by more recent writing efforts.

- *Use professional organizations.*

All fields within education have organizations that provide specialized resources and services. Those listed have publications that will provide leads to many additional sources.

Next Steps

What most schools are now doing to educate students about the world is not necessarily wrong. If it were, it would be easier to deal with. The danger lies in that what is being done is partially right, and as Arthur W. Coombs, director of the Center for Humanities Education at University of Florida, cautioned, "In the realm of human affairs, nothing is more dangerous than a partly right idea."

Lessons, units, and whole courses exist in almost all school systems that focus on the world outside our borders. And all students in all schools are expected to learn something concerning the world. That's fine, but how effective are these various efforts?

All available evidence indicates, taken together, these efforts fall far short of our stated goals of creating globally literate students and citizens. With few exceptions, Americans are not globally literate. That much is apparent.

Given this, what can you do now, in your own corner of the world, to improve things? Can and will you do so when time and resources are always in short supply? The choice remains with you. The time to act, however, is now.

Either specific steps are taken to improve international education in your school district or things can be left to chance. If you take no action, things might improve; the good citizens of Iraq also suddenly might become our warmest friends in the Middle East. I seriously question whether that will happen either.

Both alternatives exist, and as educational leaders in your communities, please think about my father's favorite advice: "God gave us two ends, one to think with and one to sit on. Heads you win, tails you lose!"

Or, to put it another way: If not you, who? If not now, when?

Project Links (Linking International Education with Schools), which Thomas Collins directs, offers support to schools on global education.

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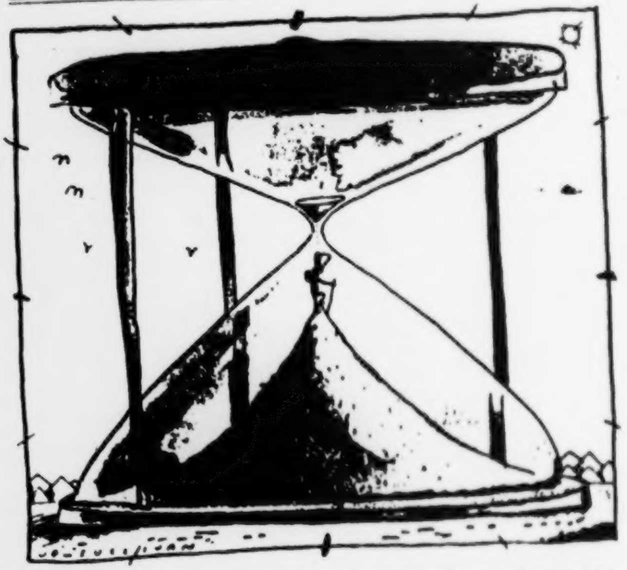
Finding the Way: Structure, Time, and Culture In School Improvement

To Mr. Donahoe's mind, restructuring *means the formal rearrangement of the use of time in schools to allow them to create and sustain the kind of interactive culture and supporting infrastructure they need to improve student learning.*

By Tom Donahoe



AS I WORKED in the field of school improvement during the past four years, I became increasingly struck by the failure of those who write about and those who are directly involved in school restructuring to confront a critical question: How does a school generate and sustain the characteristics of effectiveness?

During my immersion in school reform I have read about, been told of, and seen firsthand the inadequacy of the factory model, the egg crate, the cellular structure of schools. I am familiar with the characteristics of effective schools as identified by research – strong leadership, clear and ambitious goals, strong academic programs, teacher professionalism, and shared influence. I have seen lists of desired states, such as school-based management, shared decision making, schools-within-schools, integrated curriculum, interactive/cooperative learning, authentic assessment, performance-based testing, and parent involvement. But I have not read about, heard, or seen how a school takes on these features and, in so doing, differs from the traditional school in the way it functions – in the way it's organized, in the way it structures time, in the roles and interrelationships of its staff. What has been missing, I think, is an adequate consideration of the crucial relationship in schools between structure, time, and culture.

To be fair, the literature and practice of school restructuring nips at the heels of these factors. When a school implements the programs of Theodore Sizer, James Comer, or Henry Levin, something has to change in the way the school functions. But those changes, in Joseph Schumpeter's terms, tend to be adaptive responses – major changes that stay within the range of current custom rather than creative innovations that go beyond existing practices and procedures.[1] Maybe an evolving series of adaptive responses will get schools where they need to go eventually, but the more likely result is what Yevgeny Yevtushenko calls "fatal half-measures." As long as the responses only bend, rather than break, the traditional model, any changes brought about in a school are living on borrowed time. It is easier to go back than to go forward because the system that envelops the school was created to support the traditional model and is thoroughly inhospitable to any other form.

It has taken me some time to put these three elements – structure, time, and culture – together. When I began thinking about school improvement four years ago, my attention was attracted by the way schools were formally organized. Gradually, however, I found that time and culture had stronger

TOM DONAHOE, a member of the board of the Far West Laboratories for Educational Research and Development, is a consultant on corporate communications and contributions and on school/community partnerships. He lives in Walnut Creek, Calif.

Illustration by Jem Sullivan

roles to play in school effectiveness than I was accustomed to seeing in other settings. The best way to bring the roles of structure, time, and culture into focus is by describing my own progression of experience and thought.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

In the fall of 1989 the Pacific Telesis Foundation, of which I was then president, began working with three California elementary schools in a comprehensive restructuring project. By January 1990 I had formed what I thought at the time was an original insight into school organization. I began saying that schools had no organization, describing them as just convenient locations for a bunch of individual teachers, like independent contractors, to come to teach discrete groups of children. I noticed that teachers did not talk about themselves as belonging to an organization; they were more likely to think of themselves as being at the outer reaches of a large bureaucracy. Nevertheless, I expected them to take offense at my description of schools. But no one did – in fact, every educator I spoke to agreed rather enthusiastically. Then I found that my insight was not at all original. It permeated the literature. Here, among many writers on the topic, we find John Goodlad saying that there are no "infrastructures designed to encourage or support either communication among teachers in improving their teaching or collaboration in attacking schoolwide problems. And so teachers, like their students, to a large extent carry on side by side similar but essentially separated activities."[2]

It is only necessary to envision the organizational chart of the traditional school to understand the issue. The chart would show a box for the principal at the top and, below that, one long, horizontal line of boxes for teachers. There may be other positions and roles, especially in high schools, such as assistant principal, counselor, department head. But they don't add depth to the chart; if anything, they extend the horizontal line. The way an organization is configured affects the behavior of those who are in it, minimizing some kinds of behavior, maximizing other kinds. The traditional school organization minimizes collective, collegial behavior on the part of teachers. It maximizes two conflicting behaviors. It leads to bureaucratic, rule-prone direction from the top, since the school is not set up to determine its own direction and rules, but then it creates autonomous teachers who, behind their classroom doors, can readily ignore much of the top-down direction.

There is a scene in Tracy Kidder's *Among Schoolchildren* in which the principal of Kelly School is meeting with his teachers on the day after the local newspaper has printed the results of the statewide standardized test – flunked by more than 30% of Kelly School's sixth-graders. Almost all the students who failed came from families below the poverty line. "I don't want to hear the test scores anymore. I know what kids we got here," the principal told his teachers. "We can't bring them all up to grade level no matter what we do. But can we improve instruction here? You bet we can. But we're doing a good job. We really are."[3] And that was that. The problem at Kelly School is not just a principal who is failing to provide academic leadership, and it's not incompetent teachers. This is a group of people without the support and resources of an infrastructure that enables them to work together on schoolwide problems.

Although that issue is pointed to again and again in the literature, I have yet to find any effort to run its implications completely to ground. I believe that when we talk about school-site councils, school-based management, or shared decision making, we think we are talking about structural change. However, those forms of school management tend to be appliquéd on to the traditional school organization, not woven into its organizational fabric. They don't necessarily break up the horizontal row of boxes.

When the Pacific Telesis Foundation project began, the schools were organized into teams, each of which was to develop a strategic plan in one of four areas. Every member of both the teaching and the classified staff signed up for the team of his or her choice – curriculum, teaching and learning, leadership and management, or parent and community involvement. The schools were encouraged to invite parents to join a team. Each team elected a leader; the whole school staff elected a project coordinator. The principal, coordinator, team leaders, and, in some instances, others, such as grade-level representatives, formed a leadership council.

During that first year, as I observed the schools struggle with the process of change, I formed a number of conclusions about school restructuring. The first conclusion was that the process needed to be undertaken as a formal reorganization of the school. It could not be perceived by the school staff as an informal or ad hoc arrangement for the purpose of carrying out one more project. Schools are accustomed to ad hoc arrangements for the administration of seemingly discrete operations such as the school improvement program, Chapter 1, and special education. It was not at all apparent to the schools we were working with that they now had a new school organization that should embrace and integrate everything they did. The idea that the schools were undertaking a formal, comprehensive reorganization – that this was not just one project among many – needed continuous reinforcement.

The second conclusion I reached was that there was another reason for the reorganization to be formal and comprehensive: if it were not, the schools would remain vulnerable to changes in leadership and staff. Informal or ad hoc ways of doing things are ephemeral unless, as in many private schools or some small schools in small communities (or districts), tradition has made them inviolable. We all know examples of schools that became immensely effective through the leadership of an innovative, risk-taking principal and then, when the principal moved on, collapsed back to the ordinary.

My third conclusion, which grew out of the second, was that schools are too dependent on their principals. The plain fact is that there simply aren't enough good principals to go around. Thus a critical objective of school restructuring has to be the development of a school organization that can generate good school performance when the principal is not an effective leader or that can sustain good performance when an effective leader leaves. On the other hand, it also became clear to me that the leadership skills of the principal are critical, at least in the early years, to the success of an effort to create a formal environment of shared influence. Teachers who have just emerged from their individual boxes are not yet ready to

We could buy time for the school staffs, but they had no space to install it.

assume leadership roles in a shared-influence setting. Schools are trapped by a leadership dilemma: they require skilled, effective principals in order to outgrow their utter dependency on those principals.

That observation led me to a fourth conclusion. In order for schools to outgrow their dependency on the principal, every member of the administrative, teaching, and classified staff – as well as some parents – must have an active role in the formal organization. Schools are small enough to function as a form of direct, rather than representative, democracy. Schools that restructure by forming a representative executive committee or leadership council, however those bodies are chosen, do not significantly change the isolated role of teachers within the organization. The effectiveness of such schools is as vulnerable to changes in staff as is the effectiveness of the principal-dominated school.

The fifth conclusion was that schools need an external change agent to help them through the traumas of change. We had organized the staff into four strategic planning units, and virtually every staff member was involved in one of those units. A leadership council provided overall coordination, and the foundation bought time (by giving stipends and paying for substitutes, released time, and retreats) so that this new organization could function. Still, we were asking the schools to change in unspecified ways – to change in any way that would improve student learning. We know how enormously painful, hard, fragile, and prolonged change is for individuals, and the collective behavior of people organized into institutions doesn't seem much different from – or less intransigent than – individual behavior. Just as for individuals, the help of a change agent eases organizational change and, like rebar in concrete, keeps the process from cracking and crumbling.

Among the factors that made change traumatic in our schools were a lack of leadership skills, unfamiliarity with recent research and practice, inexperience in consensus building, staff discord, the inability to prioritize and focus, the tendency to think in terms of staff problems rather than in terms of student needs, and a reluctance to step off into the unknown (or, rather, an inclination to take, once again, fatal half-measures). Without a change agent, only schools with an extraordinary staff or exceptional leadership will achieve meaningful change, and even for them it will be a long, long road, highly vulnerable to changes in staff.

Having arrived at these convictions and then making use of them to guide the effort, I believed for some time that the project, which in its third year had grown to six elementary and two middle schools, had the needed elements for change in place and that it was only a matter of time and patience before the process began to have an impact on student learning. As I prepared to leave the project at the end of 1991, each of the schools had its own obdurate set of issues, impediments, and problems, but I also became aware that, to varying degrees, all of them were suffering from organizational stress.

THE STRUCTURE OF TIME

This was the source of the stress: we could buy time for the school staffs, but they had no space to install it. Organizational activities were crammed into every available corner of the day. It wasn't just a matter of finding time for meetings; there had to be time for all the additional interaction, assignments, and emotional energy that stitch an organization – a culture – together. For those teachers who thought a lot about what they did, we were crowding the time they would otherwise have spent thinking about their children and their classrooms by giving them the additional responsibility of thinking about the whole school.

This issue first surfaced in the project's second year, when Louise Bay Waters, a change agent for one of the schools, wrote a short paper on the promises and pitfalls of shared decision making. She wrote, "Time is the final, and most worrisome, potential problem with shared decision making. Teachers may become so involved with school management that they actually end up less effective in the classroom, or even burnt out." At the time, I thought that the problem was real but confined to a few especially active teachers and that it was caused primarily by the extra turmoil of the project's early stages. As the new ways of doing things became routine, even the most active teachers would find ways to balance their activities; in the meantime, we simply needed to be alert to the problem and to deal with it on an individual basis. But, following some meetings with teachers and principals in the fall of 1991, I began to think that the problem was more serious, if not endemic, and was linked to the issue of infrastructure.

It makes sense, after all. The traditional school organizes the school day so that teaching itself, including the preparation and the paperwork, both administrative and academic, is a full-time job. Still, like most people in any other job, teachers don't necessarily work at 100% capacity, whatever that is. There is some room for most teachers to become more engaged with their schools. However, like a factory – but unlike most other organizations – a school doesn't have much flexibility for structuring into the schedule the kind of time that teachers need to make schools a collegial effort.

The tension between teaching and school leadership activities cannot be resolved by suboptimizing both. If restructuring is to make any difference, teachers need to be able to perform at their best in each role, and the roles need to be complementary, integrated, and synergistic.

According to the cross-national study Harold Stevenson and his colleagues conducted in the United States and Asia, in schools in China, Taiwan, and Japan, where students seem to perform better academically than their U.S. counterparts, an eight-hour school day is structured so that teachers are in charge of classes only 60% of the time they are at school, and teaching itself is a group endeavor. Stevenson reports that "Asian teachers are able to engage children's interest not because they have insights that are unknown in the U.S. but because they take well-known principles and have the time and energy to apply them with remarkable skill."[4]

I'm certain that the most radical and politically difficult element of school restructuring is what needs to be done with the use of time in schools so that teachers can expand their role. The barriers to establishing an eight-hour school day, for example, are probably insurmountable. Cost is certainly a major impediment, but parents and the community are also serious obstacles to change (which doesn't bode well for school choice as a change agent). A school in Southern California set aside Wednesdays for teachers to work together outside the classroom. The other four school days were slightly extended, and on Wednesdays the students worked on interactive, cooperative learning projects under the guidance of a permanently assigned substitute teacher. A group of parents concerned about the use of substitutes ended that promising experiment after one year. Members of Theodore Sizer's Coalition of Essential Schools run into trouble with parents who resist change for a variety of reasons. Interschool athletics, beloved by parents and the community, are an overwhelming barrier to any significant change in the structure of time in high schools. Afternoons, after all, are needed for practices and games.

Nevertheless, no matter how unthinkable radical change in the school day may be, the school simply cannot continue to function traditionally, with a compressed academic day during which each teacher sticks to his or her own room and duties, as the sociologist Dan Lortie described it.[5] I believe that this factory model has never been in the best interests of teaching and learning, for the reason that Susan Moore Johnson expressed: "A lone teacher can impart phonics, fractions, the pluperfect tense, or the periodic table, but only through teachers' collective efforts will schools produce educated graduates who can read and compute; apply scientific principles; comprehend the lessons of history; value others' cultures and speak their languages; and conduct themselves responsibly as citizens. Such accomplishments are the product of a corporate venture."[6] We simply didn't know what schools were missing, but since the 1960s the social changes and expectations that have overpowered our schools and teachers have created huge cracks in the inherently faulty structure of our schools.

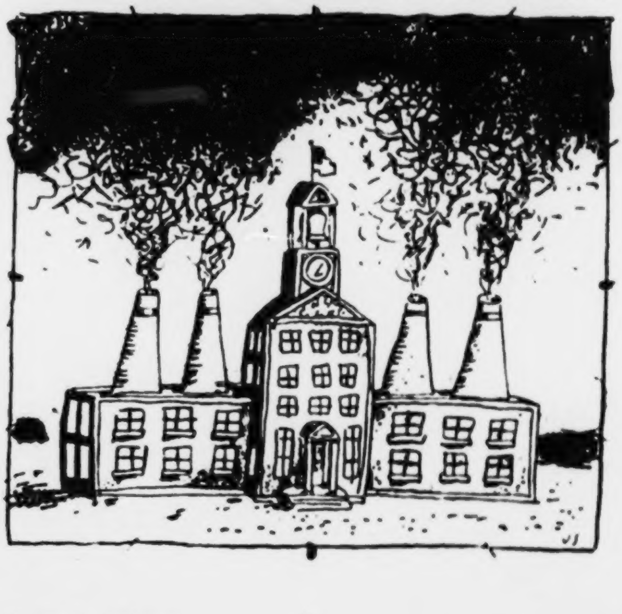


Illustration by Jem Sullivan

Those changes seem to fall into four categories: growth, diversity, inclusion, and social dislocations. First is the mismatch between growth and resources. Classrooms, schools, and sometimes districts are too large. They have grown beyond human scale for effective teaching, learning, and the management of these activities. Second is the phenomenal expansion of ethnic, linguistic, and cultural diversity in the classroom and the school. Third is the expectation of full inclusiveness. We have come to believe that all children can learn and should stay in school to do so. Fourth is the set of social changes or dislocations that have occurred over the past three decades: single-parent families, latchkey children, poverty and poor health, drugs, gangs, and violence.

Traditional schools and large bureaucratic districts cannot cope with these changes because they do not have a structure that supports an environment capable of change. The education system is a series of closed containers – classrooms, schools, central office fiefdoms (which is what we mean by the egg crate or cellular model) – all of which are surrounded by competing special interests. Change requires a dynamic, open, self-examining, interactive system.

CULTURE

The qualities just listed describe a culture, not a structure. But the creation and life of a desired culture depend on a compatible supporting structure. Fred Newmann wrote that the restructuring movement is going about the process of change in the wrong way, by "trying to design organizational structures before clarifying purposes and reaching consensus on the educational ends that organizational structures should serve."[7] Unfortunately, the traditional school does not have the organizational capacity to formulate goals, desired outcomes, and strategies. Schools need to change their organization in order to change their culture. I would modify Newmann's observation by substituting the word "governance" for "structures" or by saying that the restructuring movement is trying to design organizational structures without sufficient regard for the culture the schools need in order to clarify purposes, to reach consensus, to ratchet student learning to a higher level.

We take for granted that the function of organization is to create levels of authority for the purpose of moving decisions and direction downward. Based on that assumption, we have made an enormous investment in maintaining a bureaucracy whose directions teachers can simply ignore behind the closed doors of their classrooms.

The kind of culture and supporting structure schools now need reduces both top-down bureaucratic direction and classroom autonomy. In the Telesis Foundation schools, the team leaders and project coordinators do not in any sense supervise units or teams of teachers. Rather, they are elected volunteers from among the staff whose role – in addition to teaching, counseling, or administering – is to facilitate the upward (and lateral) movement of influence through the organization. Schools require a very special nexus of culture, time, and structure, in which a certain kind of culture assumes the function that authority plays in traditional organizations, classic bureaucracies. A diagram of the formal organization of a school restructured in this manner might show overlapping circles representing spheres of influence, rather than boxes representing areas of responsibility and levels of authority.

When a school practices shared influence, it does not mean that decisions – and therefore power – are simply delegated to, or even vested in, an individual or a committee. Rather, through some consensus-building process established by the school, everyone in the school community has at least an opportunity to influence outcomes. Decision-making power that resides in one person or group may change other people's behavior but not their preferences. Influence has the more difficult task of changing preferences and therefore behavior. Or, perhaps more realistically, an accepted, collective process of shared influence relaxes the grip that personal preference has on individuals. In a shared-influence setting, teachers have less individual autonomy because the pressure to do things differently comes from a source that they need to respond to – their peers. The loss of individual autonomy is offset, however, by the collective ability to do things on behalf of student learning that the teacher was not able to do in isolation.

These thoughts clicked into place in my mind as I listened to the principals of the schools in the Pacific Telesis Foundation project air their frustrations with shared decision making. Initially, most of the principals thought that this process meant outright delegation. Finally, Bruce Baron, principal of Los Naranjos School in Irvine, said that he'd dropped the term in favor of "shared influence," because he realized that he too, after all, was still a member of the staff and in his role had valuable things to bring to the consensus-building process. The delicate skill the principal needs is the ability to bring those things to the process without cloaking them in robes of authority. The principal's suggestions, like everyone else's, must be able to stand on their own merits. The operative word is *culture* – not governance, not positional authority.

In recent years many organizations have been convinced that they needed to change their culture. But culture – the values, beliefs, behaviors, rules, products, signs, and symbols that bind us together – is not something we can change like a flat tire. Culture is organic to its community. If culture changes, everything changes. For schools to become organically different, it isn't nearly enough to repeat like a mantra, "Every child can learn." What psychoanalyst Allen Wheelis says about individual change seems equally true of organizational change: "Since we are what we do, if we want to change what we are we must begin by changing what we do." And he adds, "We are wise to believe it difficult to change, to recognize that character has a forward propulsion which tends to carry it unaltered into the future, but we need not believe it impossible to change." Although a change agent may be a critical enabling factor, the responsibility for change obviously lies with those whose behavior determines whether change has taken place. The plastic surgeons of organizational behavior – those with copyrighted paradigms to push – cannot do the work for us. "We are," Wheelis says, "no more the product of our therapists than of our genes: we create ourselves. The sequence is suffering, insight, will, action, change."[8]

FINDING THEIR OWN WAY

As we think about how schools should change, we hamstring ourselves by our labored and distracting efforts to find an analogue or metaphor for how they ought to work. We have not been properly discouraged by the disastrous results of turning the factory metaphor into reality.

Thomas Timar suggests that a baseball team, which "exemplifies a dynamic organizational culture that reconfigures itself to be competitive in new situations," is a better metaphor for schools than a factory.[9] Among other difficulties with his metaphor, I just can't find any trace of an analogue for students on a baseball team – nor, in the routines of teachers, do I find anything comparable to spending half the workday sitting together rather idly in a dugout. Still, Timar has come up with a good description of what a school culture ought to be. He knows the difference between metaphor and analogue and is only suggesting that, as organizations and cultures, schools ought to be the polar opposite of a factory. But we need to say that in another way.

There simply isn't any other organized, human activity, either in metaphor or in reality, that is anything like the collective effort of a community to impart learning and character to children, to enable them to become active, productive citizens. We need to set aside the metaphors like "smart machines," concepts like the marketplace, and questions like "Who is the customer?" – because all of them, drawn from other kinds of organized activity, narrow our ability to come to terms with, to capitalize on, to envision the uniqueness of schools.

Schools are not only different from other organizations, but they are profoundly individual in their specific circumstances. One of the Telesis Foundation schools is located in a dysfunctional urban area and has a student population that is 95% black; another has seven significant groups of children whose first language is not English; another has a student population that is 95% Latino, with many students whose parents are migratory laborers; another is stratified about equally into three social groups: children from upper-middle-class families, children whose families live in low-cost housing, and children of enlisted military personnel; another is an ethnically diverse suburban school that is taking on urban characteristics; another is a brand-new school with a magnet program and a hand-picked faculty; another is an urban middle school with 400 students, 95% of them black, for whom safety going to and from school is the number-one concern; another is a middle school serving more than a thousand youngsters about equally divided among whites, blacks, Latinos, and Asians, 20%

The principal's suggestions, like everyone else's, must be able to stand on their own merits.

of whom are not native English speakers and speak 12 different languages. Two of the schools operate year round, one with four tracks and one with a single track. The faculties, too, differ in many ways from school to school. As David Kirp wrote recently in a critique of school choice, "Each school will have to find its own way, because everywhere the talents and the possibilities are different."[10]

MAKING CHANGE POSSIBLE

Saying that each school must find its own way, however, does not mean that it will not need a little help from its friends. Whether that help is from the state, the district, or the change agent, the form that it should take is the creation of an environment that is both enabling and motivating – providing sanction, protection, capacity, knowledge, resources, and the opportunity to change – combined with a set of expectations and the sensitivity to know when, where, in what direction, and how hard to push.

The function of the change agent is to prepare and organize the school for change; to identify the areas in which staff members are weak, such as leadership skills and group decision making, and to provide the training that they need; to help the principal adapt to a new management style; to assist in the vision, mission, goals, objectives, measurements, and timetables; to identify the impediments that are peculiar to the school and help the staff recognize and overcome them; to keep the focus of activity on improved student achievement; to recognize when schools are attempting too little or too much and then to help them establish the right pace of change; to enable schools to circumvent district and state bureaucracies and provide them air cover against interference from the district; and to create networks within which teachers and principals can interact with their peers from other schools and districts. Ideally, the change agent would have experience as a teacher and an administrator; skills in group facilitation; political savvy; a good knowledge of current research and practice in the areas of teaching, curriculum, and assessment; and a personal vision of and commitment to school improvement.

A change agent can work effectively with as many as five elementary schools within a district but with only two or, at most, three high schools. In the initial stages it would be preferable if change agents were not district employees, but – unless the district obtains a corporate, foundation, or state grant – it is hardly likely that it could afford a corps of outside change agents. To build up its internal capacity for assisting change, a district should retain one outside person who would train, oversee, and back up a cadre of change agents who have been recruited from within the district. To make room for the change agents, the district would begin its own restructuring by eliminating such positions as curriculum coordinator and other school support roles that will be assumed by the schools. District change agents should hold the same rank as school principals and should be allowed by the district to approach their job objectively and independently. If the agents are district employees, they as well as the schools need to be shielded from overbearing district rules and procedures.

As schools move through the process of change, the role and involvement of the change agent diminishes, though not at the same rate or in the same way for every school. Nor does it ever entirely go away. Because schools must be dynamic organizations, identifying and adapting to changing circumstances and improved teaching methods and curriculum, they need someone who stands outside and looks at their culture and effectiveness with a cold eye and a warm heart, who would not be tempted to let difficult circumstances limit what the school believes it can achieve, who will not allow the school ever again to be a static organization, who cannot be co-opted by either the district or the school.

The change agent is an indispensable figure, but it is the principal who has the most crucial and sensitive role. Within the Telesis Foundation project, even the best principals – those who had an innate talent for managing a shared-influence environment – were not sufficiently prepared for the change in their role. But once they had weathered some initial stress, their lack of preparation did not hinder the process from moving forward. If a principal cannot manage well in a shared-influence setting, however, any change or improvement in the school will be marginal at best. Most districts will not have very many principals who are up to the job. Shared influence requires principals who are intuitive, risk-taking, visionary, self-confident, empathetic, and trusting. These are the implied qualities of the best kind of leader, summed up about 2,600 years ago by Lao Tzu, who wrote, "When his work is done, the people say, 'Amazing: we did it, all by ourselves!' "[11]

The number of schools that a district can initially undertake to change will be limited by the number of available change agents and by the number of qualified principals, so districts must find a way rather rapidly to develop and enlarge the pool of both. That talent pool will come largely from teachers who experience the process and come forward to take leadership roles in their schools. While leadership academies for principals may be helpful for setting the stage, management skills and styles are learned primarily by experience, access to on-the-job consultation, and interaction with peers who are working through the same process of change.

FINDING THE TIME

A culture can't change and an organization can't function unless they can make use of time in a way that sustains their life, like oxygen to the blood. Somehow, we need to find a

The problem of time is greater for large middle and high schools because they are more complex.

way to provide teachers with the time they need to make productive use of their collective energy.

A basic requirement for all schools is that the full staff meet for at least three days before the start of school to set the agenda and the calendar for the year, to organize teams, and to elect leaders. Nearly as vital is a full staff meeting for a couple of days at the end of the school year to assess results, to set preliminary objectives for the next year, and to designate staff members who will do those things that need to be done over the summer, such as compiling research or receiving training. Year-round schools need to make time in their calendars at some point for these full staff conferences.

Time also needs to be found during the year. The Pacific Telesis Foundation schools have lengthened some days and shortened others in various ways to make time available for collective effort. At Will C. Wood Middle School in Sacramento, which has divided its 1,000 students and its faculty into eight houses, students come to school 1½ hours later than normal every Wednesday so that the house faculties can meet. But other team configurations, such as house leaders, the leadership council, subject-area teachers, and special groups like the technology team, simply meet when they can – usually after school, some on a regular schedule, others not. Will C. Wood also takes advantage of the eight days that California allows for school to be out of session so that teachers can come together to plan for school improvement.

The modifications of the school schedule at Will C. Wood and the other Telesis Foundation schools are rather modest and don't break the mold of the traditional school. They are, in other words, adaptive responses. The schools are trying to make a new organization and culture work without sufficient time, which is surely a recipe for organizational stress. Los Naranjos Elementary School, however, has combined its modified schedule with a disciplined planning and scheduling process. Beginning in May, the whole staff agrees on the school improvement activities for the next year. These are then developed into strategies by teams. (Every staff member is on a team, and teams may change from year to year. In 1992-93 the four teams were devoted to instructional strategies, language arts, technology, and assessment.) The whole staff decides what the school's priorities will be, how much time will be spent on each strategy, and who will be responsible for development and implementation. A steering committee then puts together a full-year calendar that includes all team meetings, grade-level meetings, and full staff meetings, along with the subject of each meeting. The calendar is completed in June before school is out.

Because teachers make the calendar, teachers can also change it. But if a new venture is added, some other strategy or activity must be eliminated or diminished, which requires the agreement of the full staff. "The mistake most schools make," says Principal Baron, "is that they plan their use of time month by month, and they keep tossing in new things to work on." At the beginning of the 1991-92 school year, when the district asked all schools to undertake a self-esteem strategy, Los Naranjos was able to say no, wait until next year, because it could show the district a full school improvement calendar and agenda for the year.

In order to create time, Los Naranjos makes use of its eight school improvement days and has also slightly lengthened four weekdays and shortened Wednesdays, dismissing students at 1 p.m. The calendar includes the specific use of all Wednesday afternoons by teams of teachers.

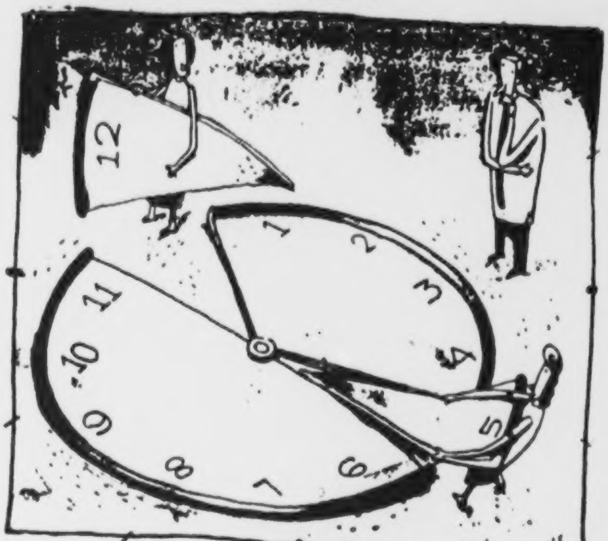


Illustration by Jem Sullivan

The school worked with parents to gain support for both the eight school improvement days and the short Wednesdays, convincing parents that, if they wanted the improvements they were beginning to see to continue, they must give the teachers time. During this outreach process, parents themselves chose to schedule the school improvement days immediately following holidays.

The formula Los Naranjos has adopted in order to make maximum use of the time available in a traditional schedule – that is, disciplined planning and scheduling combined with concentration on a limited number of strategies – is an approach that should be used no matter how radically a school is able to restructure its schedule. As Baron points out, Los Naranjos budgets time just as it budgets money. It itemizes what the time is for, how much time is needed, when it will be used, and who will use it.

The Los Naranjos yearlong calendar is an effective mechanism for husbanding both time and the number of issues the school chooses to address during the year – creating a sharp staff focus and making certain there is a match between time and activities. The teachers can prepare themselves to balance teaching responsibilities and collegial activities. "Teachers have a real solid feeling they will get something done during the year," Baron says.

Nevertheless, the modifications of the schedule at both Los Naranjos and Will C. Wood amount to adaptive responses rather than creative, formal innovations. Although schools can find ways to rearrange their schedules to make some time for collective effort, these modifications do not provide enough time for the adequate involvement of every staff member and all internal interests. The problem of time is greater for large middle and high schools because they are more complex than elementary schools and need more structured planning time to attack their issues from different angles.

Collective time needs to be treated, Baron says, as a valuable and scarce commodity that is formally scheduled and rigorously allocated to specific aspects of the school's agenda. Just as the state requires a certain number of classroom minutes and a certain number of teaching days a year, it (or the districts) should find a way to formalize a certain amount of collective staff time, as the Asian schools do, leaving it up to the schools and their communities to determine how best to reconfigure the school day. Until that happens, all collective time is ad hoc, vulnerable to shifts in leadership, and most likely thought of as an add-on rather than as an integrated activity.

TURNING UP THE HEAT

Like the Pacific Telesis Foundation schools, hundreds of other schools across the country are engaged in school reform activities. Even though each school must find its own way, it needs a system that is supportive and also willing to change itself. When only one or two or a few schools within a district are changing, the district can tolerate, or even encourage, that activity without changing its own practices, procedures, organization, staffing, and role – that is to say, its own culture. But until the district culture becomes aligned with that of the school, any changes an individual school makes are vulnerable. In addition, individual schools may be able to show the way, but they can't collectively create a critical mass for change. Samuel Johnson wrote that a scattered people resemble "rays diverging from a focus. All the rays remain, but the heat is gone. Their power consist[s] in their concentration; when they are dispersed, they have no effect."[12] Once, while walking along a Santa Barbara coast road on a starry but moonless night, I walked right into a tree. Change throughout the system will not come about through a thousand points of light but from the steadily increasing, concentrated light and heat of one sun.

Turning up the heat is a district responsibility. When all the schools within a reasonably sized district have undergone cultural change and the district administration has aligned itself with its schools, the system itself will have something to build on. In most districts, however, a diversity of interests scatters any effort to coalesce around the best interests of schools. A restructuring effort that begins with special-interest politics will end the same way.

A district capable of cultural change must have certain characteristics: a supportive, patient school board; a superintendent who is a skilled leader with a vision for change; a cooperative, unthreatened middle management; a reasonable relationship with the union. These characteristics suggest that, in the beginning, the successful districts will most likely be small to medium-sized, with not much more than 25,000 students, and they will be part of fairly cohesive communities whose special interests are not extremely divergent. When districts of this size are manifestly successful, then perhaps the larger districts, which are more grievously plagued with special interests, will be able to motivate those interests to come together. However, I suspect that the very largest districts are simply beyond human scale and need to be broken up before comprehensive change can take place.

The reform of structure, time, and culture does not ensure school improvement; it only makes it possible. Schools will continue to vary in quality – but, in general, from wherever they start, they will have the capacity to raise themselves to another level. In California the schools have some reliable guides for putting their collegial capability to work on school improvement: the reports of the state task forces on school improvement at the elementary, middle, and high school levels (*It's Elementary*, *Caught in the Middle*, and *Second to None*); the state curriculum frameworks; and the revised, performance-based California achievement tests.

Without the reform of structure, time, and culture, school improvement projects can be propped up for some time with grant money and the efforts of external organizations. But unless all the elements of change become inherent within the school and the district, enabling the school to stand substantially by itself, school improvement efforts will eventually collapse.

Michael Kirst has said that *restructuring* has no objective meaning; it means whatever the speaker has in mind at the moment. To my mind, *restructuring* means something literal: the formal rearrangement of the use of time in schools to allow them to create and sustain the kind of interactive culture and supporting infrastructure they need to improve student learning – to bring about the creation of truly new American schools.

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The Connection Between Urban School Reform and Urban Student Populations: How Are Urban School Reform Efforts Addressing the Needs of Language Minority Students?

Toni Griego Jones

Introduction

Language minority students in urban schools

Student populations in urban schools are composed of a variety of socio-

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economic groups, racial and ethnic groups, and every other type of category used to label students. Included in that diversity are students whose home language is something other than English. Recent public school enrollment figures indicate that of the forty million students in public schools, almost two million or approximately five percent are considered to be limited English proficient (Orum, 1990). The actual number of students whose first language is other than English is greater than the two million identified as limited English proficient (LEP) because that number only includes students who have not reached minimal levels of English proficiency. Many others are proficient enough in English to not be flagged for special services. Still others are never noticed or assessed for English proficiency because school personnel only have experiences with them in English and are not aware of their home language background. Spanish is the most frequently encountered non-English home language, but over thirty percent of students in federally funded bilingual/ESL programs are speakers of more than one hundred other languages (Staffing the Multilingually Impacted Schools of the 1990s, 1990).

In this article all students from non-English language background are considered language minority. Scores on English proficiency tests which determine LEP status set arbitrary lines of demarcation that do a disservice to children from non-English home backgrounds. A child's cultural and linguistic background must always be a consideration in planning instructional programs, and children's home backgrounds don't change because they reach a certain number on a test.

Traditionally, language minority students have been enrolled mostly in large urban school districts. For example, in the school year 1990-91 the nation's four largest school districts, New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, and Dade County, Florida combined had almost a quarter of the students designated as limited English proficient in the United States (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1991). This trend continues although language minority students are now beginning to be found in suburban and rural school districts. In states which traditionally have not been associated with language minority populations like Wisconsin and Minnesota, small towns and rural areas are being heavily affected by an influx of language minority students, particularly Hmong/Lao speakers. However, suburban and rural increases notwithstanding, the largest numbers of language minority students are still in big urban school districts. Even in districts where overall enrollment is declining, numbers of non-English speaking students are on the rise (Staffing the Multilingually Impacted Schools of the 1990s, 1990).

Urban school reform

Anyone involved in public education during the last decade knows that schooling has endured several phases of reform throughout the eighties. Because of an alarming decline in academic achievement of students, particularly in urban schools, the early eighties brought a reactive move toward mandating excellence. By setting higher achievement standards for students and teachers, reformers sought to improve schooling. Later, in hindsight, educators saw that these efforts at raising standards in many cases only made things worse for those who had the greatest need to benefit from reform, disadvantaged urban students (Boyer, 1984; Oakes, 1986).

After the move toward excellence came a second phase which emphasized the reorganization of schools and the teaching profession, school governance, and structure (Darling-Hammond, 1987; Fullan, 1990; Lieberman, 1984; Passow, 1991). Achievement hadn't improved by just setting goals and standards higher. Opinion makers decided that schools needed to reorganize the way they operated, to regroup, to restructure. In the latter half of the eighties the byword was restructuring, and reform efforts addressed how schools were configured or organized.

Through all of this some have questioned how any of the reform efforts directly affected the student populations in urban schools (Bacharach, 1990; Delgado-Gaitan & Trueba, 1991; Haywood-Metz, 1990; Oakes, 1986; Marcoulides & Heck, 1990; Medina, 1990; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988; Schorr, 1991). Students, including language minority students, in urban schools continued to suffer and remain at the bottom of the achievement heap. Could it be that the real issue for reform was not in raising standards or changing organization of schools but in recognizing and accepting the reality of the student populations? Raising general cries of alarm and mandating excellence without focusing on the variety of student populations in urban schools cannot address the diversity of need. Given the diversity that exists in urban school systems, it is unlikely that a blanket reform approach will connect with the variety of populations represented within urban systems.

The rhetoric in educational literature about meeting the needs of students could fill urban public schools from top to bottom. Yet, how much do urban teachers, administrators, and reformers really know about their students' needs? Is the real problem the failure to recognize what and who urban schools are trying to reform for? Could it be that educators have refused to admit an issue that they really don't know, much less deal with, who their students are? For example, where is the knowledge base on urban language minority students and how is it being used in reform in school systems with large numbers of language minority students?

In reviewing the literature on educational reform, the need to study just how change efforts directly address specific school populations becomes apparent. My previous study in which urban school district personnel described change in their systems also suggested this need. For example, a striking finding in an earlier study was that even in districts with significant minority student populations, ranging from fifty to eighty-seven percent, only two instances of change (reform) described by school district personnel were directly connected to their large minority populations. Those two examples were busing for integration and implementation of a bilingual program. Other examples of change such as site based management, new curricula, district reorganization, and dozens more were not described in relation to the minority student populations (Griego Jones, 1990).

These findings and reviews of educational literature suggest that current efforts at changing urban education may not be connecting with the reality of urban student populations. This article specifically addresses the question of how school reform efforts in urban districts with significant numbers of language minority students are directed toward that particular student population.

Language minority students in urban school reform

Although language minority populations are part of statistics given as proof of the need for reform, there is no hard evidence that their particular instructional needs, especially in language, have been a source of inspiration for reform solutions or a focus of attention in either the excellence or restructuring movements. In its 1987 report on progress of urban reform efforts, the Council of the Great City Schools stated that two top needs of urban schools were to create a stronger partnership between communities and schools and to train staff to respond to the needs of urban families (Challenges to Urban Education: Results In The Making, 1987, p. 39).

How have those top priorities been addressed in the case of language minority students? How can we judge whether student populations have been taken into account in the conceptualization, initiation, and implementation of reform initiatives? For language minority students it may be that districts have a tendency to take care of the "language problem" by initiating bilingual or ESL programs. All large American urban school districts have bilingual programs, English as a Second Language (ESL) programs, or both, for students from other language home backgrounds who are not yet proficient in English. Most of these programs have been in schools since the late sixties or early seventies (Ovando & Collier, 1985). At the time of the great reform movements of the eighties, bilingual programs were in place or were being implemented even as many large urban school districts were involved in initiating other major reform efforts. Some districts like New York (with 46,593) and Miami (with 54,096) which are currently at the forefront of moves toward restructuring are also districts with some of the largest numbers of language minority students.

There is little evidence to suggest that district personnel themselves think of bilingual programs as legitimate efforts at district reform aimed at improving schooling. Rather than being perceived as a way of delivering more appropriate and effective instruction for a segment of their student populations, they are often thought of as remedial programs to take care of a language deficiency.

Research study

The question of missed connections between urban school reform and urban student populations led to the initiation of a study funded by the University of Wisconsin System's Institute on Race and Ethnicity and reported in part here. The scope of this article deals only with language minority students, but the results are from a larger study which explored minority participation and perspectives in two efforts at urban school reform.

Case studies of two schools involved in different approaches to school district restructuring, one school in Chicago and one in Milwaukee, were conducted over a period of six months in the 1989-90 school year. These districts were chosen because they were just beginning major restructuring efforts which promised unprecedented opportunities for stronger community involvement in the governance of schools. Both case study schools had bilingual programs with approximately thirty percent of each school's students classified as LEP. The number of students from Spanish language home backgrounds was much larger (97% in Chicago and 45% in Milwaukee), but many students had reached a sufficient level of English proficiency as measured by the respective district tests to be in regular classes.

The primary source of data was on-site interviews with those involved in various aspects of reform – school personnel, parents and community, central and subdistrict administrators, and university, government, and business leaders. Data were also collected through on-site observations in schools and meetings of the various groups (teachers, local school councils, citywide coalitions of business, university, and city leaders) as well as analysis of minutes from those meetings. The goal was to get perspectives from those involved in all aspects of the restructuring effort -- from those in the classroom to those involved in drafting and implementing the reform plans on a broader scale.

Below are brief overviews of each school district to give a picture of the settings in which data were collected during the 1989-90 school year.

Chicago Reform literature is full of descriptions of the unprecedented reform experiment in Chicago by various research groups such as the Chicago Panel on Public Policy and Finance and The Center for School Improvement at the University of Chicago. This study does not attempt to review the history and scope of this district wide effort at restructuring. State legislation effective July 1, 1989 mandated sweeping changes in governance of the schools. A highlight of the legislation was the transfer of authority from central administration to local school councils by giving councils authority to hire principals, to approve the school's budget, and to influence and approve the School Improvement Plan. State legislation divided the Chicago Public Schools (CPS) with an enrollment of 400,000 students into eleven subdistrict areas (including one high school area which encompasses all high schools) with an office and district superintendent for each area.

Unquestionably the point of the Chicago reform legislation was to break up the very strong bureaucratic central administration and make the school the locus of control. Each school now has a Local School Council (LSC) composed of elected members (two teachers, two community representatives, six parents) and the principal. There is also a subdistrict Council made up of representatives from each LSC in the subdistrict area. Members of the city-wide Central School Board have always been, and still are, appointed by the Mayor. Consequently, the school system has historically been tied to city government.

The climate and publicity surrounding the Chicago educational reform effort were unprecedented. There was a sense within the broader education community (university, city, state, business) that this was a last chance attempt to save the school system. Proponents of the reform demonstrated a fervor akin to that of the Civil Rights movement of the sixties. The community at large was aware of the plight of the Chicago schools and the radical effort to restructure them, particularly in regard to the LSC and its authority to hire principals. The press publicized this aspect of the reform, especially in cases where council decisions resulted in conflict. The term "reform" was thrown about everywhere, and the assumption seemed to be that the schools and classrooms themselves were experiencing some type of reform.

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Milwaukee Milwaukee Public Schools (MPS) with an enrollment of 90,000 students has a history of being progressive and innovative in educational change and reform. For example, in the early eighties it received publicity for its RISE program and its urban/suburban integration plan. After having the same superintendent for fourteen years, in 1988 a new African American superintendent was brought in. Full of reform ideas, in his second year he subdivided the district into six service delivery areas with a community superintendent, an Instructional Support Team (IST), and a district office for each area. Each area also had a Community Advisory Council composed of members nominated by the community at large in each district and appointed by the Community Superintendent. Most schools have some type of local parent advisory council, but only certain MPS schools have been designated as Site Based Management Schools. These schools, which were in operation prior to last year's district reorganization receive extra monies and support to develop and maintain their site based councils.

In the school year 1989-90, there was widespread confusion and lack of understanding throughout the district about the role and authority of the various layers of the reorganized district administration. To some outside observers there was a climate of struggle and unrest between the old central office and the new community superintendents and staff as they adjusted to the restructuring and tried to define roles in the new system.

The Milwaukee school was chosen for the study because of its demographics (45% Hispanic, primarily Mexican American) and also because it is a designated Site Based Management school that was just beginning to implement a new K-3 ungraded primary structure in the 1989-90 school year. Unlike Chicago, Milwaukee does not have all of its schools involved in one major reform effort. Rather, there is a great variety of reform initiatives within the system. Individual schools have some freedom to try various innovations and to develop their own. In some cases, faculties vote to implement District initiatives that seem to hold promise for change in their schools. According to respondents, in the case of the ungraded primary concept, some school board members had decided that the idea was worth trying and essentially sent out a call for proposals to schools which might be interested in reorganizing themselves in an ungraded way. Eventually one school in each of the six subdistricts was chosen from among those interested. In one subdistrict, however, no school submitted a proposal, so the area superintendent chose a school and strongly encouraged the staff to involve themselves in this effort. The community superintendent included this school in the pilot project as much to have an Hispanic school as to have one from that particular subdistrict. Both principal and faculty were willing to try, but it

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was not their initiative.

School year 1989-90 was a planning year for those involved in the implementation of the ungraded primary. A central office administrator oversaw and coordinated all six schools involved in implementing the pilot ungraded primary project. Meetings between the central office coordinator and school staffs started well into the 1989-90 school year, and activity centered on planning and coordinating efforts for the 1990-91 school year. The case study building itself had not yet experienced the brunt of the activity except for the principal and four teachers who represented the school on the district ungraded planning committee. Parents and community were not involved in the initiation, planning, or implementation of the ungraded primary in any way.

Findings

Across the board, the one common theme which emerged in both districts and from all actors was the perception that restructuring efforts should, or could, benefit students in their schools through the focus on more local school control. It seems reasonable to expect that if local governance councils more closely reflect each school's student populations, the needs of the school's students would have a better chance of being understood and met. The following discussion examines this expectation voiced by all respondents by relating it to two other important findings, (a) differences between student/parent populations and teaching staff, and (b) the lack of uses of research on language minority students.

Difference between student populations and teaching staff

Teaching staff and student populations in both schools reflect national statistics on students and teachers. Teachers were predominantly white middle class (77% in the Chicago school and 72% in the Milwaukee school), and student populations were predominantly minority (97% in Chicago and 45% in Milwaukee). These case study schools then were representative of most urban schools in terms of ethnic composition of students and teachers.

The past twenty years had brought significant demographic change in the student populations in both schools. In both schools students had been predominantly Polish in the past, but over the last twenty years the neighborhood population had changed to become overwhelmingly Hispanic. Teachers' interviews in Chicago exhibited a shallow knowledge base about the current Hispanic students' lives outside of school. Comments from teachers which questioned why the present students couldn't be like other immigrants twenty years ago revealed a lack of knowledge about the economic and social conditions of the neighborhood. They seemed to assume that nothing in the economy or social structure of the neighborhood had changed in the last twenty years, only the color of the children. In fact, almost everything (including jobs, economy, life style) had changed in the last twenty years except teachers' understanding of their students.

Cultural and socio-economic differences manifest themselves in a variety of ways (Moll, 1990; Delgado-Gaitan & Trueba, 1991; Wong-Fillmore, 1990). Issues that are important for one group may not be for another. For example, bilingual education was one topic brought up at meetings of both parents and teaching staff in Chicago. Although neither group had clear ideas of what bilingual education encompassed, parents generally gave it more importance than staff did. Except for the bilingual teachers, bilingual education was viewed by staff as a compensatory program, there temporarily to take care of some deficiency in students. In Local School Council meetings on the other hand, many parents talked as if it were a way of recognizing and valuing them and their children.

Differing perspectives on grading policies and procedures in Chicago were another example of the gap between staff and parents. Teachers saw grading and retention as part of setting high standards, and parents saw grades as indications of failure or success on the part of staff in teaching their children. Related to this were the differing perspectives on students' limited proficiency in English. Where teachers saw the students' lack of English skill as the reason for students' failure or inability to keep up, parents blamed failure on the teachers' inability or unwillingness to accept students and teach them as they are.

Another Chicago example of differing perspectives resulted from the legislation that provided for parents and community to participate in developing School Improvement Plans. Teachers viewed writing school improvement plans or adopting new curricula as their domain while parents thought they had a right to have a say in what their children were taught. Whose values and beliefs would be reflected in the school improvement plan? The outcome of the territorial debate could determine the direction of the school. In the first year of implementation, a committee of teachers, with suggestions from colleagues, actually wrote the School Improvement Plan. The principal presented the plan to the LSC at a special meeting, and the council approved it unanimously. Council members saw the two hundred page document for the first time at that meeting and were impressed with the amount of time it must have taken teachers to write it. An examination of the plan itself showed little attention had been given to language minority students' instructional needs. Goal statements made general references to developing literacy in all students. No specific plans for students from non-English language backgrounds were made. It did not account for the distinction between teaching native English speakers and teaching English as a Second Language or for developing native language literacy skills for dominant Spanish speakers.

Differences again arose in deciding how to elect members to the teachers' Professional Personnel Advisory Committee (PPAC) in Chicago. Discussion about whether to have a special representative to the PPAC for the bilingual teachers surfaced in faculty meetings. One reason that bilingual representation was brought up at teacher meetings was that parents on the LSC and Bilingual Advisory Committee questioned why there were no bilingual teachers on the PPAC. Some faculty opposed singling that group of teachers out and giving them what was seen as double representation. Again, each group demonstrated a difference in awareness of issues, values, and orientation.

In Milwaukee the same bilingual teacher representation issue surfaced (although not from parents as they were not involved) but was handled in a different way. Bilingual representation in implementing the ungraded plan in the Milwaukee school was more in the control of the principal who was aware of the lack of bilingual program representation of the ungraded primary planning committee. Consequently, the principal added a second grade bilingual teacher to the school's planning team as an afterthought to satisfy a political need, not because of any serious thought to needs of language minority students.

The Milwaukee version of Site Based Management and parent involvement through the Community Advisory Committee at each Service Delivery Area was very different from Chicago's. In Chicago the study produced data on the relationship between parents and community and teaching staff which could be analyzed. In Milwaukee there was little data to analyze because the local community and parents were not involved in initiation or implementation of the ungraded primary schools through the Site Based Management Council. Nor did parent and community representatives appointed to the Service Delivery Area's Community Advisory Committee discuss these types of initiatives at their monthly meetings.

Only a few teachers and the principal at the local site were involved in initiation or implementation of the ungraded primary program, some in representing the school at district planning meetings, others in receiving feedback from those representatives. This limited participation of teachers and

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principal, however, is still important in the consideration of differences between faculty and students and parents because only staff viewpoints were heard in this effort at school reform. Since parents were not involved in this effort it is difficult to say what they might have thought or valued. Their lack of involvement, however, speaks volumes about their connection to this reform initiative. They were not even in the game.

The above examples of issues are specifically related to the language minority student populations of the case study schools and give an idea of how educators differed from community and parents in their views or topics of concern. All issues which surfaced in data analysis affected language minority students as they were part of the entire student bodies. That large numbers of students in both schools came from Spanish language home backgrounds should have been a major consideration in their schooling even though some had reached minimum levels of English proficiency.

Coming from different worlds, teachers and students and parents see education and each other in different terms, even though teachers and parents may have the same eventual goals for students.

Using research in reform for language minority students

A glaring void which became apparent in the data analysis was the almost total lack of use of research on effective schooling for language minority students. The research base encompassing first and second language acquisition, effective learning environments for language minority students, and the cultural context of learning was not used in these two cases of school reform. School districts in general do not use the knowledge base on minority students in their formulation of theory and policy related to school reform (Boyer, 1984; Griego Jones, 1990; Medina, 1990; Schorr, 1990). The thinking that is propelling school reform is still largely being done by white middle class educators whose mental images are filled with white middle class students, not racial and ethnic minority students (Oakes, 1986).

In the case studies reported here, this problem of inattention to the reality of student populations surfaced again. The extensive literature and increasingly sophisticated research in bilingual/bicultural education was not used in the two reform efforts reported in this article. With so many students from Spanish language backgrounds, it is logical that both schools would have used those demographics to give them direction for reform. It would have been logical for them to thoroughly research information on effective learning environments for

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Mexican American children. Instead, Milwaukee adopted an ungraded primary school program because board members thought it was a good idea. The point is not that an ungraded structure wouldn't be beneficial to language minority students, but that they and their needs were not the reason for adopting that initiative. As an afterthought the principal tried to make sure that the bilingual program was represented in the initiative, but clearly the fact that forty-five percent of the school's population was Hispanic did not mean anything in the adoption of that concept.

Chicago's local governance groups also let the demographics of their school count very little. There, the limited attention that was given to the language backgrounds of many of their students showed signs of degenerating into the old political debate about whether they should or shouldn't have bilingual education. Some bilingual staff members did ask for catalogs and ideas about where to find resources in Spanish, and the principal asked for information on multicultural education, but no effort was made to upgrade the knowledge base of bilingual and nonbilingual faculty, so the entire staff would better understand students from Spanish language backgrounds in spite of a student population that was 97% Mexican American.

Conclusions

Results from these two case studies highlight the lack of connection between urban school reform and urban student populations. These findings, merging with a wealth of research and educational reform literature, continue to suggest that efforts at improving schooling will not be successful unless there is a conscious, concerted effort to address specific student populations.

Reflection on findings from this study produced at least three priorities for refocusing urban school reform to meet the variety of student populations, in this case specifically language minority students. First, school systems with language minority students need to use the growing body of research on language minority students in a meaningful way in staff development related to reform. Extensive staff development is beginning to be recognized as vital to the success of any school reform, and districts are beginning to realize that no change can be expected without upgrading the knowledge base of teachers and self-examination of attitudes, beliefs, and expectations toward students (Fullan, 1990). However, staff development needs to be directed toward specific student populations and not toward the latest educational fads or students in general. The diversity of schools and needs of specific student populations get lost if reform is cast in general terms. Teachers need to become experts at dealing with specific populations within their buildings. Unless there is a clear and studied understanding of how reform strategies connect to student populations there is only a hit and miss chance of succeeding in educating every student.

Second, along with the need to use existing research, is a need for colleges, universities, and private foundations to contribute to the growing knowledge base on urban minority student populations, including language minority populations, by aggressively conducting and rewarding research on the diversity of urban student populations. More research on needs, values, perceptions, and effective learning environments for students must catch up with the exhaustive data base on students' dismal lack of achievement.

A third important priority for refocusing urban school reform is in the area of policy and decision making. With the trend toward more local governance, how are minority populations involved in that governance and decision making about reform in their schools? How are minority populations to ensure that they are not left out of developments in reshaping their schools? Conscious attention must be given to research on patterns of minority involvement in decision making and influencing policy.

The move toward power and decision making authority at the local school site makes the question of how to connect current teaching staff with their students and communities even more urgent. The closer governance is to the local school community, the more closely it will reflect the needs and wants of the school, parents, and community. At the same time, however, the closer the governance is to the local school community, the stronger and sharper the differences may be between the teaching staff and the local community. The reform thrust toward local governance highlights the need for accelerating staff development on culturally diverse student populations and helping to establish connections among teachers and students and parents. It also offers another reason to renew efforts to recruit young people from language minority backgrounds into teaching.

These priorities for refocusing reform assume that educators are ready to accept the various student populations and gear efforts to fit the diversity of students found in urban public schools. As we enter a new era of school reform in the 1990s, timing and a renewed awareness and acceptance of the diversity and uniqueness of urban student populations could give public education another opportunity to better connect urban school reform with those it is supposed to serve.

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Meeting the Needs of LEP Students Through New Teacher Training: The Case in California

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Since the mid 1970s there have been various federal and state mandates to provide for the instruction of linguistically diverse students in bilingual classrooms. Since that time, however, the demographics of states such as California have changed so quickly that the supply of trained bilingual teachers has fallen far below the needs of the students. In today's world, in addition to bilingual teacher preparation, teacher education programs must move to prepare all other entering teachers to meet the changing demographic needs of the

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classroom.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss a proposed model[1] for providing additional and better prepared bilingual and monolingual educational personnel for programs for limited English proficient (LEP) students. Specifically, the model addresses the need to provide certification- oriented preparation for preservice elementary and secondary level teachers with a cross-cultural, language, and academic development (CLAD) emphasis, which will also serve as the core for the bilingual CLAD (B/CLAD) emphasis. The program is designed to prepare teacher candidates to work with LEP students where bilingual programs are not available or as the English component in a bilingual program using specially designed English language development strategies. In addition, preservice CLAD candidates can move from the CLAD program to the B/CLAD as they become proficient in another language. Also, since it is a career ladder model, candidates can later take additional preparation to become B/CLAD specialists who will serve as resource and mentor teachers, staff developers, curriculum writers, and in related activities. The B/CLAD and specialist programs are not addressed here as the concern is for those who have previously been omitted from the preparation program, the primarily monolingual preservice teachers who will be teaching students from diversified backgrounds using specially designed English language development strategies.

Rationale

Four major trends support the need for the proposed model: (a) increasing numbers, proportions, and original languages of LEP students in California and other parts of the United States; (b) resulting social and political impact on our schools, including dropout rates and other social inequities; (c) shortages of certified bilingual teachers; and (d) mainstream, English monolingual backgrounds of the majority of preservice teachers.

Increases in LEP students.

California serves as an example of changing population patterns in the United States. The 1990 census puts the population of California at 30 million. The population of ethnically diverse students exceeded 50% by the fall of 1988: Hispanic/Latino - 30.7%; African American - 9.0%; Asian - 7.6%; Filipino - 2.2%; American Indian or Alaskan Native - .8%; Pacific Islander - .5%.

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[1] The California Commission on Teacher Credentialing approved the new B/CLAD model at their meeting on February 7, 1992.

Total Ethnically Diverse	50.8%
White (non-Hispanic/Latino)	49.2%

(CA Institute for School Improvement, 1988).

By the year 2000, it is projected that non-Hispanic whites will be in the minority, with three million people of Asian ancestry and eight million Hispanics (Kipplinger, 1991).

Approximately one-sixth of California's students are currently foreign born, and at least 30% (over one million) are limited in their English proficiency (Catterall, 1988; Honig, 1990). Students identified as LEP whose primary language is Spanish have increased in California by 8% per year since 1985. However, between 1988 and 1989, Spanish LEP students increased by 16% (from 475,001 to 553,498). From 1985 to 1989, LEP students whose primary language is Cambodian increased by 69% (from 10,730 to 18,111) (CA Department of Education, 1989). While California's numbers are the largest in the country, the LEP student population in the United States is also growing rapidly (Bouvier, 1987; GAO, 1989; Kipplinger, 1991). These data clearly indicate increasing numbers and growing diversity of native languages among school aged children in California, in perticular, and across the nation in general.

Resulting Social and Political Impact on Our Schools

Certainly, these demographic trends can be analyzed in terms of the social and political impact for our schools. In terms of race relations, our teachers must act as models, confronting intentional or unintentional racist behavior in the classroom. Furthermore, schools need to honor pluralism by acknowledging the historical and cultural contributions of various ethnic groups throughout the school year (Pollard, 1989). Within the present school environment, "bi-cultural ambivalence" and the caste status of culturally diverse students ascribes them to subordinate group status by the dominant group which controls the institutions and reward systems in our society (Cummins, 1986).

The dropout rate for various ethnic groups is alarming and reflects their social status: Mexican American and mainland Puerto Rican students have a dropout rate of between 40 and 50% compared to 14% for whites and 25% for African Americans (Cummins, 1986; Kagan, 1986). Suggestions to limit the dropout rate look to incorporating the cultures and languages of the children into the

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school program and adding English as another language rather than replacing their primary language (Cummins, 1986). Community involvement with the school in terms of parent collaboration with teachers can empower school communities; unfortunately, isolating schools some distance from the communities they serve works against this goal which may occur when not enough trained teachers are available (Cummins, 1986; Kagan, 1986). Teachers need to act as facilitators, collaborating and reciprocating with students in order to empower them, rather than controlling and mystifying them (Freire, 1970; Cummins, 1986). Students need to be encouraged by their teachers as well as nurtured by them through high expectations for achievement (Saville-Troike, 1985).

Politically, our educational system is seen as a means of maintaining the status quo of social inequities such as class, race, and gender differences rather than transforming them (Feinberg and Soltis, 1985; Pennycook, 1989). In negating the political nature of pedagogy, education gives the superficial impression of serving everyone (Freire, 1970).

Shortages of Certified Bilingual Teachers; Majority Mainstream Monolingual English Preservice Teachers

According to a recent report (Honig, 1991), California has approximately 8000 bilingual teachers and needs an additional 14,332, a number that will increase if demographic trends continue as predicted. Projections for the nation by the year 2000 are for 97,000 bilingual teachers (Honig, 1991). As an example of how few such teachers are actually being trained, San Diego State University's College of Education annually prepares approximately 600 credentialed teachers. An overwhelming majority of these newly certified teachers are white, non-Hispanic, and monolingual as are 78% of the current teachers in San Diego County (San Diego Union, Feb 1991). Of these 600 teacher candidates, the College of Education which houses the state's largest bilingual teacher preparation program, graduates only about 60 Spanish bilingual teachers (elementary and secondary combined) each year (59 in 1990-91). Approximately 500 new bilingual teachers per year are credentialed statewide (419 in 1989-90) (CTC, 1990). San Diego County alone has a current shortage of 800 bilingual teachers. Obviously, institutions in California and neighboring states cannot produce a sufficient number of fully qualified bilingual teachers to meet the state's demand. A necessary addition is the training of new teachers entering the profession to work with the multilingual populations they will find in their

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classrooms (Honig, 1991). Very few classrooms in California and major cities throughout the United States will find themselves without significant numbers of ethnolinguistically diverse student populations by the year 2000 (Honig, 1991).

Need for Preservice Cross-Cultural, Language, and Academic Development Emphasis Certification

California currently provides an advanced certificate program as do several other states (e.g. Arizona) that is open only to already credentialed teachers. These programs prepare teachers to provide specially designed English language development strategies and content area instruction to nonnative English speakers where bilingual programs are not available (and in conjunction with bilingual programs). Requirements for such certification vary from state to state, and even within states. Some districts can certify teachers just from classroom teaching experience with limited English proficient (LEP) students for perhaps a two year period. Other states require statewide examinations (e.g. California), while others have a 24 unit university approved program (e.g. Arizona). The National Teachers Examination (NTE) now also includes English as a Second Language as a subject area, but ESL is not recognized as a subject area in many states.

Clearly, the data attest to increasing numbers of LEP children in the United States, and California in particular (L.A. Times, June 13, 1991), a growing diversity of first languages, severe shortages of certified bilingual teachers, and a continuing majority of English monolingual teacher candidates. Given these realities, the need to develop a preservice emphasis credential in a one year training period to better prepare personnel to work with LEP students is a necessary addition, while at the same time preparing as many bilingual (B/CLAD) teachers as possible and encouraging monolingual ones to become bilingual.

The Preservice Model for the Clad Emphasis Credential

Competencies Needed for Language Teaching

Various researchers and agencies have identified competencies needed to teach the diversified student population now found in classrooms in the United States. Among others, Garza and Barnes (1989), the Teachers of English to

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Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) organization, and the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC) have identified the following competencies:

1. Cultural awareness;
2. A theoretical knowledge of linguistics and language acquisition as applied to ESL and bilingual education;
3. Content knowledge as a basis from which to teach;
4. Knowledge of pedagogical methods for second language learners, including ESL; and
5. Practice teaching and fieldwork.

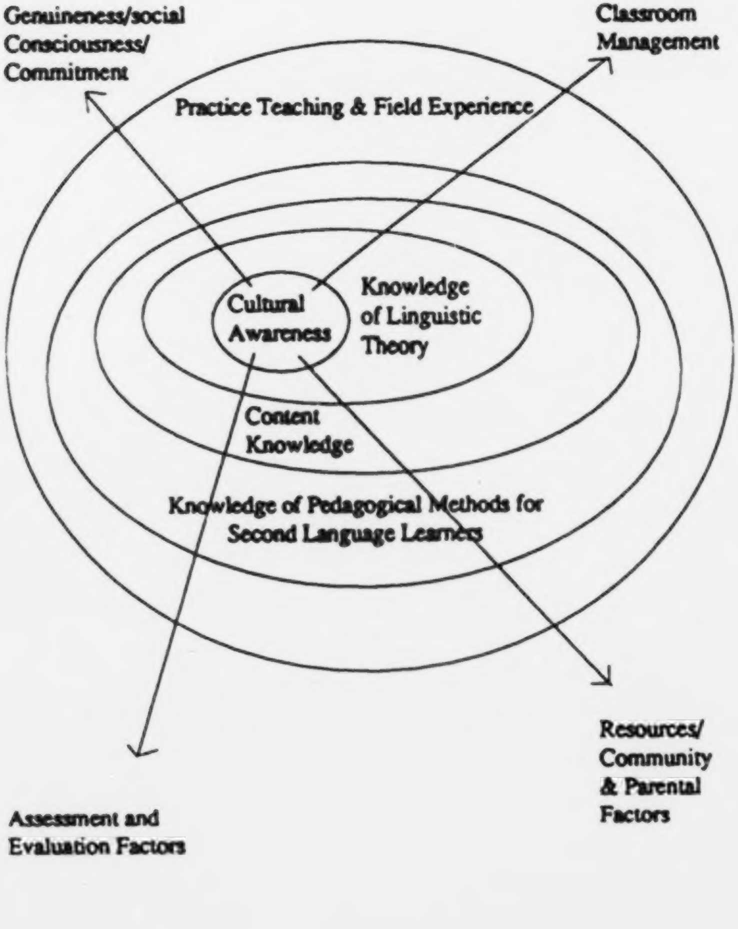
The main purpose of the CLAD preservice training program is to prepare candidates to teach in culturally diverse school settings and to work effectively with students whose native language is other than English. The organizing theme of the preservice program courses and practice teaching experiences is to enable candidates (and their future students) to become active social participants in a multicultural democracy.

Based upon the analysis of the literature for second language teaching, the CLAD model proposed here synthesizes the affective/cognitive pedagogical factors and the theoretical/pedagogical methods for the cross-cultural, language, and academic development (CLAD) teacher. Each of the competencies needed for second language teaching is represented as a circular shape which is a component part of a whole (See Figure 1). At the core of the competencies lies cultural awareness, which represents the ability to relate cultural diversity to educational equity (Garza & Barnes, 1989). This is followed by knowledge of linguistic theory which provides the framework for the understanding of language structure, language learning and acquisition, theories of bilingualism and cognition, and the use of language in communities.

The next competency represented in the model is content knowledge which is demonstrated by the undergraduate core curriculum or a content examination like the National Teachers Exam (NTE). This provides the subject framework from which to teach. The knowledge of pedagogical methods for second language learners is a competency which represents an understanding of English language development and related approaches for teaching LEP students. The last competency in the model is practice teaching/field experience which allows the preservice CLAD candidate to apply the competencies listed above to practice in a supervised situation.

The other affective/cognitive pedagogical factors function as interconnected

Figure 1. Cross-cultural language and academic development model.


Genuineness/social Consciousness/ Commitment
Classroom Management
Practice Teaching & Field Experience
Cultural Awareness
Knowledge of Linguistic Theory
Content Knowledge
Knowledge of Pedagogical Methods for Second Language Learners
Resources/ Community & Parental Factors
Assessment and Evaluation Factors

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threads with the more theoretical pedagogical methods described above. The affective/cognitive characteristics (Classroom Management, Resources/Community and Parental Factors, Assessment and Evaluative Factors, and Genuineness/Social Consciousness/Commitment) (Garza-Barnes, 1989) are represented as branches radiating out from the central core and connecting all competencies. These competencies are essential components that will produce a successful, effective, culturally sensitive teacher.

Culture Awareness

An integral part of such a program requires within our teacher candidates an awareness of cultural characteristics and value systems. Teaching effectiveness in various cultural settings is required, and, above all, we must instill in our prospective teachers the ability to relate cultural diversity to educational equity (Garza & Barnes, 1989; Scarcella, 1990). This goal may be accomplished through undergraduate coursework including such topics as an overview of multicultural education, sociolinguistics, and is further reinforced during the preparation year in courses which include humanistic, social, behavioral, and psychological aspects of teaching. This core curriculum should address issues of cultural diversity, cultural conflict, cultural pluralism, cultural assimilation, and relationships between cultural diversity, educational equity, academic achievement, and socioeconomic status (Garza & Barnes, 1989; Scarcella, 1990).

Theoretical Knowledge of Linguistics and Language Acquisition

Teacher candidates must also have a framework for understanding the process of language structure, learning, and acquisition, the theories of bilingualism and cognition, and the use of language in communities. CLAD teacher candidates need to be knowledgeable about: (a) phonology, morphology, and syntax; (b) first and second language acquisition; (c) the structure and role of language in terms of its linguistic components and social function; (d) analytic aspects of the English language for purposes of teaching limited English proficient speakers; (e) the philosophy and theory concerning bilingual and bicultural education and their application; (f) techniques of teaching ESL, the current materials, approaches, and theoretical foundations that support their use; and (g) current research on the effects of attitudes and motivation on language learning and acquisition in order to create a low anxiety classroom (Brown, 1987; Cummins, 1981; Garza & Barnes, 1989; Minutes of the Bilingual Advisory Committee of the CTC, October 11, 1990).

Content Knowledge as a Basis From Which to Teach

As a prerequisite, all students entering the CLAD teacher education program need to demonstrate core competencies in content knowledge through the completion of an undergraduate academic program which becomes a foundation from which teaching methods can be built. This foundation in undergraduate preparation will be integrated into all coursework in the preservice program. While English language fluency is a goal of the classroom, teaching ESL in isolation has been shown to have limited results (Cummins, 1981). Applying specially designed English language development strategies to content (as described below) makes learning English more meaningful and has direct application to the mainstream classroom. It serves to empower students both in English language skills and content areas simultaneously (Cummins, 1989).

Knowledge of Pedagogical Methods for English Language Learners

This competency seeks to develop within our prospective CLAD candidates knowledge about English language development instruction and related approaches: (a) total physical response; (b) natural approach; (c) content based instruction; (d) cooperative learning, and (e) whole language. These are not separate entities but all are expected to be integrated into classrooms with LEP students. Current second language research shows that ESL in isolation does not provide needed academic skills (Cummins, 1981). Of the many frameworks and techniques associated with ESL, the following are perhaps the best known for initial English language acquisition for LEP students.

The Total Physical Response (TPR) approach allows students a period of several weeks or months during which they are not asked to produce language, but only to respond to commands that require physical movement thus lowering the affective filter (Lessow-Hurley, 1990; Richards & Rogers, 1986).

The Natural Approach, developed by Krashen and Terrell (1983), is based upon the assumption that language acquisition will occur when comprehensible input is provided with a focus on the communication of messages in low anxiety situations. Language acquisition develops in stages from preproduction, where students communicate with gestures and actions through intermediate fluency where students engage in conversation and produce connected narratives

(Lessow-Hurley, 1990; Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Content Based Instruction, sometimes referred to as the **Sheltered English** approach, is used to make academic instruction in English understandable to LEP students. It also uses content as the goal, with language learning as a device to reach that end. The following strategies are employed in each content area (such as math, science, music, and health) to accomplish these objectives:

- slow but natural levels of speech
- clear enunciation
- short, simple sentences
- repetition and paraphrasing
- controlled vocabulary and idioms
- visual reinforcement through the use of gestures, props, pictures, films, demonstrations, and hands-on activities
- frequent comprehension checks.

The focus in the classroom is to maintain a low level of anxiety by ranking comprehension above production and emphasizing communication (Northcutt & Watson, 1986; Lessow-Hurley, 1990).

Cooperative Learning employs several techniques in order to achieve positive outcomes in academic achievement, ethnic relations, prosocial development, and a positive sense of self-esteem and caring for others (Kagan, 1986). Some examples of the many techniques included are:

1) Peer Tutoring, which is designed to encourage students to help each other to achieve in an academic task. Tutoring is used with low-difficulty academic tasks.

2) Jigsaw, which employs the principles of teamwork and division of labor, so that each team member ultimately masters the entire learning unit. This is used with medium difficulty academic tasks.

3) Cooperative Projects which involves students working together collaboratively to produce a paper, a presentation, or a mural. Cooperative planning, coordinated research, analysis, and debate must be exercised by the members. This technique is used with relatively complex academic content (Kagan, 1986).

While **Whole Language,** a philosophical framework, may be different things to different people (Goodman, 1986), most proponents recognize the following principles: (a) authentic texts are used rather than basal readers; (b) language skills are integrated into content areas; (c) the lessons are purposeful and meaningful to the learners; (d) the classroom is learner centered rather than teacher centered; and (e) the focus is on understanding concepts rather than details (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991; Freeman & Freeman, 1988;

Goodman, K., 1986; Goodman, K., Goodman, Y., & Hood, W., 1989).

Practice Teaching/Fieldwork

This competency seeks to develop opportunities for CLAD teacher candidates to experience supervised teaching assignments over a one or two semester period. The candidates will be assigned to classrooms where English is the medium of instruction and which have significant numbers of non-English speakers. They may also be assigned as the English component of a bilingual program. Certified ESL specialists should serve as master teachers for these candidates (see discussion of this relationship on p. 110).

Other Pedagogical Factors

In addition to the four areas described above, other factors involved in the pedagogical process must be considered:

Classroom management focuses on the affective/behavioral qualities of the teacher such as communicating positive expectations for achievement to LEP students, modeling appropriate behavior, keeping students focused on academic tasks, creating a safe and visually stimulating learning environment, and anticipating and dealing with students from diverse backgrounds (Garza & Barnes, 1989). Grouping by interest and activity rather than ability levels is also recommended (Scarcella, 1990).

Resources/community and parental factors focus on social/political forces in the community which affect on the instructional process, such as school and community resources; parent and community groups; social service agencies; and youth organizations and activities. Skills are needed for communicating and interacting with parents to effectively involve them in the education of their children; understanding the legal implications and rights and responsibilities of teachers, students, parents, and the community; and understanding the implications of changing demographics in the region to the instructional process (Garza & Barnes, 1989; Scarcella, 1990).

Assessment and evaluation factors include knowledge of performance-based measures and other evaluative techniques, (e.g. standardized tests) which will be used to provide feedback to students, and help them in self-evaluation. Assessment data can also be used for planning and for conducting evaluations of teacher performance for self-improvement (Garza & Barnes, 1989; Scarcella, 1990).

Genuineness/Social consciousness/Commitment focuses on teacher attitudes and affective processes. It maintains positive regard for students and parents by genuinely validating and accepting the child's situation. Furthermore, teachers must be committed to improving the understanding of their own culture and that of their students particularly as culture shapes interactional preferences. Teachers should also learn to vary their own linguistic patterns and task structures according to student response (McGroarty, 1986; Kagan, 1986; Garza & Barnes, 1989).

Instructional Faculty Participation

Many public university systems nationwide, and in California in particular, are in no-growth situations. Yet these institutions are the primary preparers of classroom teachers. Consequently, existing faculty for the most part will be used for the teaching of the preservice programs described above. Many of these faculty have little or no exposure to current classroom climates. Meanwhile, bilingual teacher faculty (with extensive experience) in most universities are already overextended due to various demands both in bilingual emphasis credential programs and in the community and cannot take on new responsibilities. It is intended that faculty in all teacher education programs be brought current on research and methodologies in order to implement the components of the program for a CLAD-type emphasis credential. This might be accomplished in one of several ways: (a) summer curriculum preparation workshops designed to incorporate new curriculum into the teacher candidate programs; (b) team teaching with trained faculty from existing bilingual and English language development teacher preparation programs; and (c) faculty taking/auditing relevant courses such as language acquisition, English language development teaching methods, cooperative learning, cross-cultural curriculum, and teaching strategies.

Selection of Preservice Teacher Candidates

The primary goal of this program is to prepare knowledgeable, competent, and sensitive teachers for the education of individuals who are linguistically and culturally diverse. The CLAD model will require that candidates entering the training program demonstrate the knowledge, values, and skills for operationalizing a culturally pluralistic school curriculum that specifically addresses the linguistic, cultural, and racial backgrounds of our ethnically diverse school communities. In order to gain admission to such programs, candidates should demonstrate these abilities through completion of acceptable field experiences and portfolios which reflect their educational views and values.

Student Teaching/Master Teacher Relationship

A critical part of the model is the interaction between the student teacher and the master teacher. The role of the master teacher "is based on the view that the student teacher can be helped to teach more effectively through the input and perceptions of the teacher educator" (Freeman, 1990, p. 105). Freeman reviews three ways in which master teachers most commonly interact with their student teachers. First, in the directive approach, "the teacher educator comments on the student teacher's teaching, making concrete proposals for change" (p. 107). In other words the student teacher acts, and the master teacher responds. Second, in the alternatives approach, the student teacher is made aware "of the choices involved in deciding what and how to teach, and, more importantly, to develop the ability to establish and articulate the criteria that inform those decisions" (p. 109). Freeman's third approach is a nondirective one. It is intended to "provide the student teacher with a forum to clarify perceptions of what he or she is doing in teaching and for the educator to fully understand, although not necessarily to accept or agree with, those perceptions" (p. 112). In other words student teachers take responsibility for charting their own perceptions and making decisions about how to act, and the master teacher brings issues to student teachers' attention. The master teacher needs to be eclectic, integrating these three approaches as best meets the needs of situations involving student teachers' experiences.

New Teacher Component

The California New Teacher Project (CNTP) is a consortium composed of a variety of school districts and universities throughout the state which acts as a support system for new teachers. Components include having teachers assigned as mentors or advisors, participating in a variety of survival skills, staff development activities, and workshops in classroom management skills (NCTP, March 1990). Advisors are often released from their positions on a full or part-time basis to aid new teachers both in and out of the classroom. They provide demonstration lessons, critique classroom environment, co-teach, and help with short and long term planning among other activities.

Making use of a network such as this one to provide a support system for the new CLAD teacher will facilitate a framework for success. Qualified specialists, such as those already trained in English language development, will be sought to work with the new CLAD teachers, since they are experienced teachers who will have had extensive classroom experience instructing limited English proficient students.

Conclusion

The demographics in the United States are rapidly changing. As discussed earlier, in California the numbers of people whose first language is not English have increased exponentially. California now has a larger number of ethnically diverse people than any other state in the union (L.A. Times, June 13, 1991). But California is not alone. The need to provide sensitive pedagogical processes for second language learners is a national issue. Furthermore, our teachers must be able to demonstrate commitment to our children through genuine affective qualities and social consciousness. These young people are our future. Empowering all students with strong educational skills in our increasingly technological society will provide our future workforce, our future teachers, and our future leaders.

We must prepare all classroom teachers to be knowledgeable about the world and the population which now exists in the United States. To do this we must look at empowerment models not deficit models. We must view the nation's people as a resource to be developed and nurtured not as people who will end up in gangs and in jail. We must establish national educational policies such as those that have been demonstrated in the State of California's publication *Remedying the shortages of teachers for LEP students* (Honig, 1991). That monograph delineates the need to support and expand the training of all teachers in areas of cultural awareness, language structure and acquisition, pedagogical methods for second language learners, and practice teaching. We must prepare and educate our current population for our future generations.

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ESL Policies and School Restructuring: Risks and Opportunities for Language Minority Students

Ofelia B. Miramontes

Introduction

Within the current reform movements, particularly those emphasizing participatory management, there are renewed opportunities to work toward providing more equitable instructional programs for linguistically diverse students. Such reform efforts call for individual schools, and the staff within those schools, to assume greater responsibility for meeting the needs of their communities. They also provide a greater voice for teachers in coordinating and

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cooperating on the development of programs for students within a school (Metz, 1990; Quality Education for Minorities Project, 1990). The assumption is that as an educational community each site will have the knowledge, expertise, and commitment to improve programs for all of the children they serve. However, because such reforms decentralize decision making for educational policies and practices (placing most curricular decisions in the hands of the individual schools), they also have the potential for further fragmenting and reducing services for linguistically diverse students.

For minority groups the potential risk of site-based approaches is that where once there was strength in numbers (that is, policies for students were advocated based on a broader student constituency), the shift from interdistrict to site-specific articulation of programs neutralizes this position. Consequently it may directly place the responsibility for advocating, designing, implementing, maintaining, and assessing such programs on the handful of teachers who are most involved in working with linguistically diverse students—without their having the benefit of a higher authority to back them up. These teachers may now find themselves alone in their advocacy of particular positions for a relatively small number of students within their school site. They may also find themselves having to advance positions that are relatively unknown to the general education population, and that may be not only unpopular but highly controversial as well. Advancing such positions is particularly risky if advocacy is not legitimized and supported within the context of change.

It can be successfully argued, of course, that relying on centralized systems has proven to be unsatisfactory, that many district-wide policies and programs have traditionally been flawed, hindering rather than supporting the development of instructional efforts for LEP students, and that such failures are, in fact, the catalyst for reform. Nevertheless, restructuring itself is no panacea and presents some unique challenges to achieving and maintaining the integrity and effectiveness of programs for linguistically diverse students.

Since site-based management teams have the responsibility to set policy for their schools, they most directly affect general educational goals, allocation of resources, coordination and implementation of programs, response to community needs and community interaction (McKeon & Malarz, 1991). This requires that along with the right to choose and set policy, teachers take seriously the responsibility they concomitantly acquire to be informed decision makers. With regard to the education of language minority students, this means that teachers need not only know about first and second language acquisition but must also be able to critically analyze the merits or flaws of existing programs. Specifically, with regard to English as a second language instruction, this requires a hard look

at how we have arrived at some of the dismal policies affecting the achievement and English language development of linguistically diverse students (RAND Corp., 1991).

Although the issues in this paper may be familiar to most readers, for the most part they do not tend to be familiar to the majority of the general education community at large. The shift of responsibility for program development and implementation to a broader segment of this educational community requires that those who are knowledgeable and concerned with language minority issues be able to clearly articulate program necessities. This makes it critical to revisit and carefully review the basic premises and knowledge base developed regarding second language acquisition in order to ensure that the essential nature of second language learning does not disappear within the pragmatic concerns of reorganizing and reconceptualizing school structures.

Although this paper is primarily about English second language development, the issues discussed are addressed to both bilingual and monolingual English teachers. The paper is organized around five critical policy issues that have evolved in ESL program planning and implementation over the past decade. The faulty assumptions that are reflected in these issues and that have contributed to the fragmentation and limited success of these programs will be discussed. A theme which will recur throughout this paper is that English as a second language instruction is not considered *basic education* within our school systems. This position ultimately weakens the effectiveness of ESL programs, severely impeding the effectiveness of most ESL instructional efforts.

ESL: a stepchild in the curriculum

Despite the rhetoric that has been generated about the necessity for all Americans to speak English—passage of English-only legislation and virulent attacks on primary language use and instruction (Peterson, 1989; Porter, 1990)—school programs for the development of English language skills for language diverse students continue to be woefully inadequate (Fradd & Weismantel, 1989; National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1988). Blame for the low levels of English proficiency believed to exist in language minority communities continues to be ascribed to bilingual educators, who by advocating bilingual instruction, as the rhetoric goes, have limited English language opportunities. Blame also goes to the non-English speaking/bilingual communities, who are accused of not caring enough and shirking their civic responsibility to develop English in their communities. This rhetoric continues to be a prevalent and

convenient smokescreen for the poor performance of many school systems in providing for the education of language minority students.

As indicated above, undermining most ESL programs within districts is the fundamental attitude that ESL instruction is supplemental and somewhat incidental. This attitude is highlighted in the following example. In an effort to consolidate services, two school districts recently developed ESL centers. Their rationale for developing these services was to consolidate resources in an attempt to provide less fragmented services to limited English proficient students. However, parents who did not want their children transported to these centers were allowed to waive ESL services. Rather than recognizing English as a second language development as a basic responsibility and curricular area that must be addressed for all students with limited English proficiency, this policy reflects the extent to which schools take language for granted. Offering ESL as a choice to parents is equivalent to a district creating a center for the learning of reading and allowing parents to waive their child's literacy instruction. How is learning English less basic? The attitude that ESL is supplemental surfaces again and again in examples of staffing, time allocation, and integration of ESL into the curriculum, issues which will be discussed below.

In the above example the school district was trying to address the need for better program implementation, even though their fundamental assumption regarding the importance of second language instruction ultimately may leave many students unserved. Such policies contribute to perpetuating the extraordinary statistics of *nonserved* language minority students which have been reported in the literature. Approximately 85% of eligible students receive no services (either bilingual or ESL) at all (National Council of La Raza, 1985; Olson, 1986). These statistics point to a lack of concern on the part of educational systems to improve the learning situation of second language students—all rhetoric aside.

Even when students do receive ESL services, the level and quality of these services are often questionable. Several additional faulty assumptions have continued to guide language development instructional policies, affecting decisions regarding the design of ESL programs and ultimately weakening their effectiveness. They include such notions as the following: (a) Minimal support leads to development of language skills sufficient for academic success; (b) if content is repeated often enough it will eventually be understood; and (c) if there is a lot of talk in the classroom environment students are automatically insured of language development. Although addressed and debunked in studies reviewed by Wong-Fillmore & Valadez (1986) and others, these attitudes still persist in schools.

ESL services also tend to be limited in scope and to reflect a great deal of variability in quality and allotment of instructional time across programs even within a single district (National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1988). They traditionally last only one or two years and offer limited daily instructional time (Nadeau & Miramontes, 1988); have restricted content which is often not linked to the content of the students' other educational activities (Chamot & O'Malley, 1989; Berman, *et al.*, 1992); are inadequately monitored; and, are often taught by tutors or paraprofessionals with minimal training (National Forum on Personnel Needs, 1990). These conditions give rise to four additional issues that must be addressed if ESL programs are to improve. These issues are discussed below.

Issue 1: What is ESL, really?

In order to address some of the most deleterious assumptions with regard to ESL instruction, a common base of understanding needs to be developed and shared within a site-based decision-making setting if sound educational decisions are the goal. As indicated, there is a lack of clarity as well as many misunderstandings about what ESL is and what it is intended to accomplish. Figure 1 presents some basic premises reflecting essential areas which might govern the design and implementation of ESL programs. They are presented in juxtaposition to some current interpretations of ESL in order to emphasize their unique nature.

Each of the premises reflecting what ESL is has particular implications for the kinds of issues that must be understood and negotiated within a system of participatory management if language minority students are to be adequately served within a school community. Premises regarding what ESL is not reflect faulty assumptions which often dictate the level of services.

For a school moving toward site-based management, clear distinctions about the nature of ESL must be determined and used to maintain the integrity of English development for second language learners. They must be used during the restructuring process to guide decision making with regard to instruction and to prevent the reshuffling of the school configurations to reflect only structural rather than instructional shifts.

Figure 1. Basic premises for English as a Second language instruction[1].

WHAT ESL IS	WHAT ESL IS NOT
•essential language development for L2 speakers	•special or remedial education
•planned, daily instruction for second language acquisition	•just being in an all-English environment
•separate instruction time when L2 learners have the opportunity to express themselves	•an instructional time when L2 learners have to compete with fluent English speakers in order to participate
•second language development through comprehensible content area instruction	•simply language arts for native English speakers
•sequential, strategic curriculum delivery using ESL methodologies	•tutoring
•communication-based	•grammar-based
•teaching English to L2 students, which may include multicultural perspectives	•multicultural education
•incorporating multicultural aspects	•an assimilation program
•an essential, integral part of the students' academic program	•supplemental
•coordinated with, and reinforced by, the classroom teacher at the elementary level	•an isolated language learning program
•a program whose implementation is the responsibility of certified personnel with ESL training	•the responsibility of para-professional personnel
•the provision of English language support in the transition from explicit ESL instruction to modified classroom curriculum	•not abrupt cessation of English language support

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[1] Developed with L. Widger-Alire, M. Carr, M. Olguin, A. Frant, D. Lester, and G. Trapp.

Issue 2: ESL's role in the broader curriculum

In site-based schemes school staff assume a major responsibility for determining the direction of the curriculum. Therefore, they need to assess the interaction and impact of particular curricular strategies on English as a second language development. Two curriculum change movements are presently having a significant impact on the implementation of ESL instruction: (a) the movement toward process oriented approaches to instruction; and (b) the movement toward development of more cooperative, integrative classroom settings.

(a) *Structure vs. process.* Certainly, although approaches such as whole language for reading and cooperative learning strategies for social studies and science have opened many opportunities for students to experience a broader and more meaningful interaction with learning, they have also raised questions and concerns among teachers with relation to their role in direct, intentional, mediated instruction. For example, because these philosophies and strategies for instruction are difficult to implement masterfully, many teachers are unsure of their role regarding students' instruction and as a result are hesitant to exert their role as teacher for fear of interrupting the process. Peer interaction is often the default position, regardless of quality. The lack of balance between the basic orientations of process vs. direct instruction, student vs. teacher input, and unstructured vs. structured time have caused critics to question the loss of access some children will have to more directed, specific interactions with teachers. For example, as Delpit (1989) and others have argued, it is often important to make explicit the aims and rules of instruction (the hidden curriculum), particularly for children who have little experience with the implicit culture of classrooms. And, although excited by the possibilities these process strategies provide, many teachers themselves worry about how students will learn the basic skills they need.

Process approaches have also tended to make many teachers reluctant to structure time for specific activities such as ESL (a phenomenon particularly prevalent although by no means unique to bilingual classes). Instead, the fact that English is used in the setting is considered to be sufficient. As the reasoning goes, either plenty of English is used, particularly with peers, so that students will pick up the language, or students are considered to be in a bilingual setting, so they'll understand (i.e., it can be translated for them). In the first case, it is extremely difficult to understand how this position is different from the sink or swim position so soundly refuted by experience and research (Krashen, 1983,

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1986; Cummins, 1984). In the second case, using one language to mediate the other is a poor strategy for developing a sophisticated use of either language (Wong-Fillmore, 1986). Nevertheless, throughout the educational system these faulty assumptions persist.

(b) *Integrating ESL into regular classroom activities.* Schools involved in reform are generally actively seeking to develop new patterns of interaction between and among students and teachers. As discussed above, ESL programs generally have been conducted on a pull-out basis and lack coherence with regular classroom activities. There has long been an obvious need to link ESL curriculum to the content and activity of the classroom (Chamot & O'Malley, 1989).

And yet, adopting a policy which completely integrates LEP students into the regular classroom often becomes a double edged sword. Although total separation from the regular program is a distinct limitation of all specialized programs (Allington, 1991), totally assimilating ESL into the regular classroom program can (though need not) result in a default to submersion with no special attention given to specific linguistic interactions and elaboration of the ability to use English for academic content. The process approaches as well as movements toward integrating curriculum often blur the line between the necessity to address specific needs and the drive never to place students in homogeneous groups for special instruction. In fact, they are often perceived to be competing objectives.

Because the tendency in classrooms is toward directing instruction at the level of the native English speaker, much of what is being communicated in a classroom may not be fully comprehensible to the limited English proficient student (Krashen, 1984). Consequently, many language minority students miss a great deal of information and can also become inhibited from fully expressing themselves in situations where they must compete constantly with those more proficient than themselves.

This sense of timidity can be intensified when there is not a critical mass of language minority students within the classroom setting. Policies which encourage diffusing the language minority population throughout the school, while giving the broader school population the opportunity to interact with children of different language and cultural backgrounds, often diffuses the instructional efforts to address more specifically the needs of the language minority child. This is tantamount to making minority children a part of other children's curriculum, sometimes at the expense of their own development.

Eliminating small, homogeneous groups which may be one of the few settings in which limited English proficient students can comfortably play with language,

practice their second language in a safe environment, and develop their English proficiency in a noncompetitive setting, severely restricts their overall opportunities for English language development. The result is often little proficiency in expressing themselves on academic subjects (Commins & Miramontes, 1989). Eventually this takes its toll in other areas such as written expression. Carlos, in the following example, is a child for whom total integration has yielded limited understanding. Carlos is in a school that focuses a great deal of attention on experiential learning. The environment is full of wonderful materials. In one corner a group is putting together a chicken skeleton, in another the students are labeling the bones in the body using a model they have made, and in another a child is reading a story to several of her classmates. Carlos moves from group to group, but most of the conversations move too quickly for him. He can usually understand what the teacher is trying to get across but usually only points or nods in reply. When he goes home he tells his mother about the general nature of the activities, but he does not remember the specific words for the different topics he has heard about in class. He does not know how to say femur, knuckles, etc. Although the environment is rich in language, much of it is inaccessible to Carlos because he does not understand a great deal of what is being communicated. In addition, he finds it difficult to express himself when conversations move quickly. Carlos' case presents an example of how integration can become submersion and raises a dilemma with regard to whether students should ever be homogeneously grouped.

Given the negative findings on tracking which has been particularly harmful to minority students (Oaken, 1985), caution must be exercised in planning instructional groups. However, there are multiple ways of grouping students throughout a day, throughout an instructional sequence, and throughout theme cycles which balance special needs with integrative experiences.

Issues raised by the discussion of structure vs. process as well as the integration of both children and curriculum movements highlight the fact that schools as institutions and students as individuals sometimes have competing needs that must be balanced. Rather than throwing them both out, a balance needs to be struck between grouping for specific purposes and integrating students. This balance is dependent on a school staff developing an understanding of what is *unique* about second language instruction—that is, what types of opportunities need to be provided, what level of development and proficiency must be attained in order to successfully achieve academically, and what it takes to achieve this proficiency. In this respect, ESL is not simply the use of specific methodologies but also includes those methodologies used in particular contexts. It can also be thought of as learning to function effectively in English across a

variety of situations. ESL exists primarily within situational interactions—opportunities to try English skills in a nonthreatening, noncompetitive environment; opportunities to rely solely on their second language understanding; opportunities to articulate academic ideas that will need to be intellectually defended and supported; opportunities to learn to read and write; and opportunities for social language interactions. School instructional policies which disregard the need to balance competing needs will not enhance learning for second language students.

This brings us back to the idea that the level at which students will need to function across settings must be assessed in relationship to the demands that will be placed on them—the types of proficiency that the school expects for academic success and that their bilingual as well as monolingual communities require for social and affective success (Zentalla, 1988). For example, social oral proficiency alone is not sufficient because literacy is necessary for a variety of forms of success; literacy without social oral proficiency, on the other hand, is not sufficient because of the need to communicate orally at school, in jobs, and socially in *both* communities. Students then, must be able to engage in the types of activities that will produce success in the variety of settings in which they will be required to perform.

Issue 3: Special funding dictating pedagogy

Under site-based management, school staff have more say in the way resources are distributed and used within a school. Staff make judgements about what programs and instructional strategies are most important to develop and maintain. Although some categorical funding will continue to be targeted for particular programs, it will be important for schools to examine the damaging tendency to allow special funding to dictate pedagogy. For example, pressures to maintain the criteria for movement of students out of ESL at minimal levels persist in most school districts. Although research evidence indicates that it takes five years or more for students with limited English proficiency to achieve academic proficiency in English (Cummins, 1981; Collier, 1989), services for those students who receive them are typically only funded for two to three years (Nadeau & Miramontes, 1988). Therefore, criteria for termination of services are often reduced to the minimum time that state funding for such services is provided. Aside from the fact that students may not have had sufficient time to develop academic proficiency in English which would allow them to be able to deal successfully with a broad variety of content, movement out of ESL

programs leaves general education teachers believing that students are "fixed," and are ready to perform just like native English speakers. Such assumptions set into motion a chain of perceptions that can limit opportunities for language minority students.

Since most general education teachers have had only minimal (if any) exposure to second language acquisition requirements and methodologies, it is perhaps not extraordinary that they interpret termination of ESL services this way (Urzua, 1989). In addition, since program planning for ESL students is generally handled outside of the classroom, discussions among staff rarely focus on the role of general education teachers in ESL. Therefore, the need for specific support systems within the classroom is not highlighted, and the fact that classroom teacher involvement and support should actually intensify *after* ESL services are terminated, is not discussed. Classroom teachers do not recognize the critical role they need to play in the continued linguistic development of second language learners (Rigg & Allen, 1989). Transitions to all-English instruction with support rarely occur, and instead students may find themselves from one day to the next receiving instruction and competing for grades as if they were native English speakers (Shannon, 1991).

A minimalist approach to second language needs tends to maintain and reinforce additional faulty assumptions such as the belief that with 30-60 minutes of English language instruction per day ESL students should be able to acquire and use English at a level of proficiency similar to that of native speakers. At the same time, of course, they are also expected to learn all new content through this second language.

The allocation of resources function of site-based management teams has the potential for changing the short-sighted, negative policies of allowing legislative funding to dictate instructional programs. School policies can be changed to reflect pedagogical understandings of second language acquisition not simply to reflect legislative resource allocations. This means that ESL instruction would be supported and reinforced throughout the LEP students' curriculum to promote attainment of academic goals, and that general education teachers with ESL students in their classes would use second language strategies in their instruction. This of course will be seen as increasingly difficult to accomplish in an era of shrinking resources. Reorganization is certainly no guarantee of positive and effective change, since its success depends directly on the composition, knowledge, orientation, and collaboration of the school staff. However, creative solutions which use resources more effectively can emerge out of restructuring schools and coordinating school programs.

Issue 4: The general educator's responsibility in ESL

Present policies in schools of education which exclude ESL instruction as part of the required knowledge base for new teachers to teach successfully and district requirements for employment that fail to include a background in first and second language acquisition also serve to reinforce the idea that English second language development is not basic education. Such policies significantly impede the sharing of responsibility for ESL instruction within school sites. Goal setting and coordination of programs, however, is an important function of site based teams. As a community of professional educators, staff in such schools are specifically charged with the responsibility for making decisions with regard to the most effective progress for children within their community. Schools that participate in site-based decision making, therefore, have increased possibilities of linking and articulating student programs across grades.

Traditionally, a major limiting factor for the development of English language proficiency for limited English proficient students has been that ESL programs have tended to be understaffed, with students frequently receiving a majority of their instruction from paraprofessionals (National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1988). The consequences of such policies have been limited and fragmented second language acquisition experiences for students. Although well intentioned, paraprofessionals too often lack the training and skills necessary to design and implement instruction for language and literacy development (California State Department of Education, 1984). When ESL instruction is not coordinated with and reinforced by the classroom teachers, teachers are not able to follow the LEP students' progress, they may engage in very little direct instruction with these students, and in general they may have little contact with them.

When students have limited access to the teachers, they are less likely to encounter the notions of language development as expanding the capability to articulate arguments clearly, as a vehicle for learning to analyze ideas, and as an expression of meaning. Disconnecting teachers from the learning of limited English proficient students therefore creates a lack of appreciation for student growth, diminishes understanding of what the student needs, and can foster a sense of helplessness on the part of the teacher toward a student. The sense of responsibility for student instruction is undermined when teachers feel that student needs are being better met elsewhere.

The cummulative effect of inadequate language support over time has been devastating for many Latino students. The consequence of the combination of

limited support and lack of development in English second language skills has been that limited English proficient students are often promptly placed in remedial reading (with all its attendant stigmas) when ESL services terminate. For example, Juan had been in ESL for two years. He was a lively and talkative youngster, communicated well with his classmates, and made great progress. His classroom teacher felt that it was time for him to participate more fully in his classroom, and she reported that he enjoyed taking reading books home to share with his mother. At the time, his ESL teacher had informally invited Juan to share those books with her, and although he was able to tell a story about the pictures, he was able to read only a very few words. Nevertheless, his oral proficiency was much better than most of the other students in her ESL class.

It was decided that Juan was ready to move out of ESL. He was placed in the low reading group in his classroom, with great hopes that he would be able to move to a higher level within a few months. As time passed, however, his teacher was disappointed by his inability to catch on to the stories he was reading. His oral reading was slow and halting, and he often seemed confused. It was decided that Juan needed special help with reading, and he was accepted for remedial reading with the reading specialist. Although Juan began to progress slowly with special help focused on phonetic instruction and repetition, his teachers felt they had misjudged his ability to succeed. They wondered if, perhaps, he might have a learning disability which was hindering his progress.

Without clear communication and articulation among programs about second language issues within a school, teachers of remedial reading often function under the faulty assumption that students have received adequate exposure to and practice with English (otherwise the child would be in ESL) and that an appropriate developmental sequence of instruction has been used in their reading instruction. They then proceed to use a remedial approach because they believe that the students have not succeeded even though they have been provided with an adequate opportunity to learn to read. The problems attendant to remedial reading programs become the determiners of the next phase of many linguistically diverse students' education. Disconnected pull-out services become the norm, and reductionist curricula often further limit their opportunities to develop more advanced skills in English (Diaz, 1986). Consequently, language minority students move into their own track, a track many students never leave. It often includes various sorts of remediation and may eventually lead to special education placement (Ortiz & Maldonado, 1986; Miramontes, 1988).

This cycle is no doubt also familiar to most readers. It occurs when little or no effort is made to support language minority students as they work to develop the ability to deal with all content, across all areas of the curriculum in the same

fashion as a native English speaker. These students usually find themselves alone in their struggle to negotiate the curriculum, and it is perhaps not surprising that so many give up the fight. Readers may recognize such students as those labelled by many educators as "mixed-dominant" and ascribed poor conceptual skills (Commins & Miramontes, 1989; Ruiz, 1989; Trueba, 1989). Until there is a broader understanding and acceptance of what it takes to become academically proficient in a second language and to live successfully in bilingual communities, and until second language support is coordinated across academic contexts over time, the toll will continue.

Site-based approaches have the potential for creating learning communities where there is true shared responsibility for student instruction throughout the school and for counteracting policies which isolate instruction for language minority students. A school that understands and is working closely with its community would be expected to take a more comprehensive approach to the development of students' academic skills over time. Criteria for terminating support services for second language learners can be made more congruent with the performance expected of students across academic contexts.

Summary and Conclusions

Reform efforts, particularly those focused on site-based management approaches have the potential to improve awareness, cooperation, and instructional programs within schools and to stimulate greater parent and community involvement. On the other hand greater individual school autonomy presents the potential for further fragmenting efforts and resources for language minority students if the requirements for student learning are not more broadly understood by the staff.

What are the implications of this changing social and management structure within schools for English second language instruction? First it will be critical for all school staff to understand what aspects of ESL instruction can and cannot be traded off structurally if students are to succeed academically in English. Second, instructional programs need to be strengthened.

The following can be considered a partial checklist of factors that need to be addressed as a school staff work through their reorganization process.

1. Policies which clearly define the nature of ESL services must be explicitly articulated in order to clarify instructional goals and intended outcomes and to guide the restructuring of programs for LEP students.
2. Congruence between a school's goals for its limited English proficient

students and the experiences and instruction it provides for them must be examined and critically evaluated.

3. A careful examination of the assumptions and values reflected in existing English second language instructional policies must be conducted, particularly as they reflect the current knowledge base in research and practice.

4. The roles of individuals within the total school program must be re-examined and redefined in relation to second language learning.

5. Differences between ESL and remedial reading instructional programs—in terms of criteria for establishing need, differences in learners' background, and differences in approach for first and second language speakers—must be generally understood throughout the school.

6. Policies and rhetoric which divide ethnic and linguistic communities and staff must be discouraged and replaced.

7. Policies which support consideration of remedial reading as the backup support for language minority student must also be eliminated.

8. Paths which lead students directly from ESL to remedial services must be identified and eliminated.

9. Schemes for integrating language minority students into the curriculum that merely include these students physically in activities without adaptions for comprehension must not be allowed.

10. Policies which deny the need for grouping and intentional instruction that provides second language speakers a safe, nonthreatening, noncompetitive setting in which to practice and explore second language learning must be examined. Finding creative and positive ways of balancing groupings and types of instruction for particular needs should to be given a high priority.

11. Policies which reflect expectations that general education teachers should play an active role in second language instruction must be developed and made explicit across educational institutions.

12. Policies that promote the inclusion of students' language, values, and culture so that a bilingual child's languages do not become an either/or proposition must be implemented.

13. Finally, the recognition needs to be developed that children who live in bilingual homes will always have need for their bilingualism, and that they may experience language differently than monolinguals making it critical to foster connections.

If all this sounds like what we should already be doing, it is. But we aren't. And, if there is to be any chance that real changes in instructional practices for language minority students are to result from school reform, we cannot expect to see improvements until the same old problems are met head on. New words

will not change reality, and the pitfalls that restructuring movements present must be examined.

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Preparation for Cultural Diversity: Experiential Strategies for Educators

MARILYN BEAN BARRETT

This article examines current theory and research about educating teachers for diversity, cultural pluralism and equity. It explores how teacher educators seek to transfer multicultural skills, beliefs and knowledge about children in ways that enable teachers to help every child learn. For two decades, multicultural teacher education has evolved in response to changing demographic conditions and public mandates, but the goals originally set forth by National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) in "No One Model American" remain elusive (AACTE, 1973). They asked educators to understand the conceptual theories of pluralism in education, to incorporate and promote pluralism in their curriculum and instructional strategies, to assess the learning styles and ethnic backgrounds of their students, and to apply this knowledge by integrating multicultural pedagogical skills and principles in their classrooms.

Recruiting and retaining a diversified teaching force is obviously an ongoing goal. There is a pressing need for teacher education institutions to support and enhance a pipeline of students from underrepresented groups—starting in high school and continuing through college and the induction period. A diverse instructional force enables children to see themselves, as well as others, reflected in those who teach and lead them. America needs contributions from all its people to make society and schools richer culturally, intellectually, and spiritually.

Meanwhile, African Americans, Latinos, and Asians continue to be underrepresented in teacher preparation programs and school staffs. Predictably, "in spite of recruitment efforts designed to increase the diversity of the nation's teachers, they will remain predominantly Anglo monolingual English speakers for the foreseeable future, while their students become more culturally, ethnically, and linguistically diverse" (Dianda, 1992, p. 1). This reality poses a question: What teaching strategies best prepare White, middle-class teachers to be effective with increasingly multicultural school populations? Strategies should make future teachers more open to and knowledgeable about others, allow them to understand more about institutional cultures in their schools, as well as help them critically analyze their own beliefs, values and prejudices.

American teachers, the majority of whom are European American, middle-class women, should not be stereotyped as culturally insensitive to children. Yet there is little in their personal experiences or training that prepares them for the challenges of cultural diversity in most classrooms. Teachers require new skills and attitudes to help all children gain self-esteem and learn effectively.

Arturo Madríd, President of the Tomás Rivera Center, has roots in New Mexico that predate Plymouth Plantation. He describes diversity from the perspective of one who is considered the Other by many descendants of Europeans:

> When we talk about diversity, we are talking about the *other*, whatever that *other* may be: someone of a different gender, race, class, national origin; somebody at a greater or lesser distance from the norm; . . . someone who possesses a different set of characteristics, features, or attributes; someone who does not fall within the taxonomies we use daily and with which we are comfortable. . . . Long live diversity . . . as long as it conforms to my standards, my mind set, my view of life, my sense of order. (Madríd, 1990, p. 18)

The United States is one of the most demographically diverse nations in the world. The impact of immigration in difficult social and economic times has left many people reeling in confusion, resentful and ready to scapegoat relatively powerless others. Madríd contrasts these negative feelings about diversity with the natural order in the universe in which diversity is valued. He examines the concept of *quality*:

> We all aspire to it in our person, in our experiences, . . . we all want to be associated with people and operations of quality. . . . Let me urge you to struggle *against* the notion that quality is finite in quantity, limited . . . or re-

> stricted by considerations of class, gender, race or national origin; or that quality manifests itself only in leaders and not in followers, in managers and not in workers, . . . or that it cannot be seeded, nurtured or developed. (Madrid, 1990, pp. 18–19)

He believes that Americans must learn that quality can be found in "women no longer bound by tradition, house and family; or Asians, African-Americans, Indians, and Hispanics no longer invisible, regional, or marginal; or our newest immigrants no longer distant, exotic, alien." Then, quality becomes universal (Madríd, 1990, p. 19).

Madríd's words express a clear and positive mandate to prepare teachers for diversity. He emphasizes excellence for every child in every classroom. While teachers will still see superficial differences in size, shape, gender, multiple intelligences, skin color and personality, they recognize that the mind and spirit within each child has the potential to someday be a scientist or write a great novel or care for the young or create a work of art—or to teach others.

DEFINING MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

Multicultural education is an important component of school reform, necessitating reflection and strategic change to adapt to the challenges of diversity. It involves teachers and students in a process of discovery created by moving away from the dominant cultural perspective, working to transform the hidden and expressed philosophies of the curriculum and the school. Multicultural education empowers teachers and students with tools and knowledge to learn about their own and other cultural realities. At the same time it links understanding with the challenging of oppressive practices in their own classrooms, communities, nation, and world.

Some educators prefer to view multicultural education as only for those *others* rather than for *us*. Schools should help everyone discover "how we each have become cultured and gendered people, and how we can actively participate socially and re-make ourselves" (Kalantzis and Cope, 1985, p. 13). Culture is not just an attribute of exotic foreigners and identifiable "minorities." We create and are created by culture. Knowing how culture affects us gives us more choices as well as a deeper understanding of why members of our society and world have different values, customs, and communication styles.

Multicultural education provides a lens for a school community interested in confronting and lessening bias and prejudice between and among groups. It promotes a political agenda dealing with more equitable power-sharing among members of a community, thus empowering parents to affect school policies. It encourages teachers to reflect on their practice, values, communication style, and disciplinary expectations, learning to see themselves through others' eyes, including those of a child in one's class.

Multicultural education is commonly associated with something for marginal or "at-risk" children, who too often leave school prior to graduation because they have been placed at a disadvantage by a monocultural educational system. America's schoolchildren unfortunately still experience unequal educational opportunities depending on their neighborhood, class, and race. Multicultural education calls attention to institutional and structural problems, but it cannot solve the economic inequalities that have limited resources in schools for the urban poor while privileging suburban, middle-class and White schools (Kozol, 1991).

Multicultural education reduces racial and cultural polarization, enabling students, teachers, parents, community leaders, and administrators to work together to critically analyze real-life problems through democratic inquiry. It can help people collaboratively develop the knowledge, understandings, and skills needed to advance toward greater equality and freedom, to eradicate degrading poverty and dependency, and to develop meaningful identities for everyone (Suzuki, 1979).

Multicultural teacher education requires a similar commitment to self-reflection, process, and substantive content in higher education. But information about cultural diversity is not enough to create a sense of confidence, empowerment, urgency, and commitment (Kennedy, 1992). One of the most powerful ways to create a multicultural perspective is through immersion in another culture or experiential educational programs with an explicit multicultural focus.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Experiential, as opposed to traditional, learning involves action on the part of the learner and focuses on relearning new behaviors as well as unlearning no longer appropriate ones (Wight, 1988a, 1988b). A central belief is that information alone does not change behavior. Another is that negative experience must be processed in order to understand what caused an unsatisfactory outcome. Otherwise the individuals involved will develop stronger unfavorable attitudes. Working through one's feelings and reactions reflectively is crucial. There is a focus on learners rather than teachers, although teachers must be skilled listeners and facilitators. Students collect and analyze data actively rather than passively. Building and fostering community, trust, and peer support, as well as an initial suspension of assumptions and a willingness to take risks, are all important aspects of this learning process.

Not all experiential learning is of equal power. Generally the quality of long-term learning increases with the amount of personal participation and involvement in a community that empowers the person to take risks, try out new roles, learn new skills, and reflect on the triumphs as well as the failures involved in the process (Gibbons & Hopkins, 1985).

From a sociopolitical perspective, relationships between all participants in a learning environment are affected by ethnicity, gender, a perception of power or dominance, prior experiences, personal goals and one's sense of personal competence. Fear and resistance inhibit risk-taking activities. Students concerned about grades and graduation requirements may wear masks that cover what they perceive to be undesirable beliefs, motivations, prejudices or attitudes. These defense mechanisms erode the power of multicultural experiences to challenge one's embedded assumptions.

Past research into contact theory has found that initial experiences of contact between members of different cultural groups increase the awareness of difference (Allport, 1958). The discomfort caused by inadequate frames of reference and challenges to one's familiar patterns of perception and thought turns into culture shock (Adler, 1974). Experiential educators value temporary anxiety as part of a process which leads to greater learning and personal growth. Therefore, teacher educators should anticipate students' initial discomfort and develop ways to keep them engaged.

The School for International Training has expertise in overseas programming and regularly sends graduate students abroad for student teaching and cultural immersion. Their seven key elements for successful cross-cultural programming contain insights for teacher educators to consider in developing "an appreciative, non-exploitative relationship with another culture" (Gochenour, 1977, p. 16):

1. "Establish contact and essential communication." This is a pure survival level, essentially self-centered, requiring learning a second language and another cultural pattern.
2. "Establish *bona fides* and be accepted; i.e. allowed to exist." This involves changing one's behavior and attitudes to incorporate the perspective of the host community.
3. "Observe what is going on and sort out meaning." This stage is involved in actively gaining more information related to the participant's personal goals, interests, prior skills and knowledge.
4. "Establish a role within the role definitions of the host society." This may easily be that of a teacher, but the role may have different expectations and conditions than in this country. Many people can live fairly comfortably in another culture without significantly changing their perspective. Ensuing stages, however, require personal changes.
5. "Conscious knowledge of oneself, as a center, as a cultural being and one taking responsibility." This person learns to be self-observant, to monitor reactions and to observe others' reactions to similar events in order to learn about one's own cultural processes. A person must complete this step in order to risk trying on new cultural identities, experiencing new cultural events without old cultural baggage, and taking responsibility for the personal effect of events.
6. "Conscious development of needed attributes and skills—mental, emotional and physical." The person is free to learn and grow personally, professionally and humanly by learning from the environment. It also implies that within ourselves we can find new and creative solutions to previously unexperienced situations.
7. "Derivation of a self-sustaining, and meaningful relationship within the host culture." This does not mean "going native" as much as growing bicultural, learning to add to one's cultural repertoire, appreciate diversity, and learn from others throughout one's life.

A former Peace Corps volunteer expressed the learning found in these last three accomplishments:

> We are born at the center of the earth. . . . All assumptions about who we are and how things work are reflections of the context of family, community, and culture which surround us. Most of the important assumptions are rarely stated and almost never questioned. . . . How deliciously disturbing then is the first crack in the cocoon, that first meal at a friend's home when we meet a different way of eating. Or when we first learn a foreign language and realize that there are entire thoughts that we have never had because we didn't have the words. (Kennedy, 1991, p. 10)

These levels of awareness of cultural processes open a person to different cultural perspectives that affect a teacher's multicultural perspective at home.

ADULT LEARNING AND TEACHER DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

Many researchers have studied teacher development in relation to personal and learning needs. Some of these studies point to when experiential learning most powerfully affects teachers' multicultural skills and attitudes. Most people develop ethical perspectives in a series of stages that evolve from a dualist, right/wrong view through a relativist position to one of commitment to one's own identity within a world that is relativistic and uncertain (Perry, 1970). Recent research on preservice students in classes on multicultural issues found that personal dualism levels affected what students learned about diversity (Bennett, Niggle, & Stage, 1989).

Looking at research on inservice teachers, other theorists have noted that teachers seem to progress from a focus on survival during their induction year, to adjustment during the second through fifth years, to maturity thereafter (Burden, 1990). Apparently, teachers need a certain level of security in their skill and confidence before they can embrace differences and look for ways to improve those skills. In many cases, however experiential education may lead the participant toward greater maturity, self-confidence, and interest in cross-cultural issues more effectively than traditional classroom instruction.

Experiential learning for teachers requires an orientation; provides activities for individual participation that give opportunity to learn and practice new skills; and makes time for reflection to review what they have done, and then try to generalize its application to future situations in their classrooms (Wood and Thompson, 1980).

Peace Corps teacher training materials explain the theory and methodology which they use in preparing adults for work overseas. Andragogy, or approaches to teaching adults, is contrasted to pedagogy; approaches to teaching children. Four concepts predominate: The adult has a strong self-concept and is self-directed, able to communicate to teachers what he/she wants to learn; teachers need to become facilitators in a mutual learning environment; students are goal-directed and so the classes become learner-centered. Teachers must be problem-oriented because adults "are primarily concerned with their present situations and interests in solving the problems they experience on a daily basis" (*Peace Corps Training Manual*, 1986, p. 12, adapted from Knowles, 1978).

Maturity as a teacher relates to the process of becoming a credible and competent member of the school community. If a general level of maturity and security in adults needs to be reached before learning from and about others is easily internalized, then multicultural teacher educators are faced with a dilemma. For people to be multiculturally sensitive, they must be aware and supportive of outsiders. To be secure and competent in the profession, however, teachers often modify their attitudes and performance to fit the expectations of powerful insiders. Because teaching always transmits cultural attitudes, an openness to diversity may entail personal and professional risks.

EXPERIENTIAL TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS

This section describes several programs that incorporate experiential methods in teacher training. Because most teacher certification programs follow academic schedules and usually place student teachers in local schools, they have difficulty offering opportunities for cultural diversity or supporting students during that experience. They represent different kinds of approaches, moving from short-term, concentrated experiences to those which require a longer commitment on the part of participants.

Simulations, Weekend Workshops, Retreats

Intensive weekend retreats and workshops provide a concentrated, focused time period in which outside distractions and interruptions can be minimized to allow participants to explore the personal and social ramifications of various "isms" in depth. One model has been developed which presents a series of weekends exploring anti-Semitism, classism, racism, sexism, heterosexism, ageism and ableism. Speakers include members of groups who have suffered discrimination from members of the mainstream culture. They present factual material and challenge common stereotypes and assumptions that distance people from members of that group. Students cannot passively sit and take notes. Activities involve taking a stand, examining one's upbringing and listening to personal testimony about the harm such prejudices have on children, colleagues, classmates and fellow citizens. Time is included for reflection and steps toward action.

Preservice Practice in Cultural Diversity and Stress Management

One model teacher education program was begun at Illinois State University for preservice education majors prior to their student teaching semester (Mungo, 1985). The program aimed to give students a realistic culture shock and stress in a controlled environment. Stage one is an orientation, giving information and simulated experiences that encourage group-building to help individuals cope with the stress of the unknown challenges. For nine weeks thereafter, during stage two, students are assigned to field experiences in non-school culturally diverse settings, such as mental health centers, social agencies, or correctional facilities. Each student is matched with a program based on strengths, skills, backgrounds, and community needs. Each student has a daily assignment in a culturally diverse or unfamiliar setting. They work from 8:00 A.M. to 10:00 P.M., with seminars arranged into their work schedule, in order to experience stress that encourages participants to learn more about themselves.

Stage three consists of ongoing development of interpersonal support. In seminars, students are asked to relate their feelings about the various stages of burnout: enthusiasm, stagnation, frustration, and apathy, then they discuss strategies for dealing creatively and positively with these feelings (Lauderdale, 1982). Preservice students gained a great deal of confidence and were ready to enter culturally diverse schools. They knew that they could cope, learn from difference, help their colleagues, and find appropriate information in culturally diverse settings.

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Intern/Mentor Relationship

Mentoring as a means of teacher training is increasing in popularity in public schools. The experiential emphasis comes from an emphasis on learning by observing, doing and reflecting on one's attempts alongside a more experienced professional. One difficulty in trying to develop programs is finding sufficient numbers of adequate role models:

> Given the cultural and linguistic mix of teachers in California, their limited training for teaching in linguistically diverse classrooms, the continuing influx of language minority students, and the enormous growth in the state's student enrollment, such experienced teachers were in short supply. Most of the experienced teachers were learning how to teach in linguistically diverse classrooms alongside their beginning colleagues. (Dianda, 1992, p. 3)

Overseas Student Teaching Opportunities

At least one hundred academic institutions in the United States offer student teaching opportunities overseas in order to provide future teachers with global experiences. Teaching sites are located in more than sixty countries. In 1980, a clearinghouse called the Council for Intercultural Teacher Education was set up by the Association of Teacher Educators to network, share information and promote intercultural experiences in teacher education programs. It is currently located at Michigan State University. Moorhead State University has developed a Student Teaching Abroad program for student participants from many universities. Indiana University has student teaching options overseas, as well as on American Indian reservations and in Southwest schools with large Mexican-American populations (Brennan, 1992; Mahan & Stachowski, 1988).

Social Literacy

Australian researchers in multicultural education have evolved a different approach to prepare teachers for their own cultural, ethnic and linguistic diversity. Working in curriculum development groups that network among schools and across regions, they have worked with teachers to create, try out, and disseminate a series of books for grades 4 through 8 that they call the Social Literacy materials (Kalantzis & Cope, 1981).

Their starting place is the belief that all people are products of culture and that one's culture is a specific set of responses designed to meet basic human needs. Culture is constructed in community, socially and historically. Culture is holistic. The materials consist of a set of critical questions to be asked of and explored by the students in the class. They are not directed at the exotic *other*, the migrant, stranger or Aborigine, but at each other, because Kalantzis and Cope strongly believe that multicultural education must involve all people learning about the roles culture plays in everyday life. The tasks assigned students are academically valuable, rigorous, interesting and intellectually stimulating. They help integrate academic disciplines, rather than allowing them to stand apart in isolation. The authors oppose watered-down materials and superficial lessons depicting traditional cultures as exotic, unusual or bizarre. That emphasis marginalizes the experience of children's real lives.

In terms of teacher education, Kalantzis and Cope note that many innovative methods developed by experts are discarded by teachers due to insecurity, inexperience, or lack of time and materials. Creating one's own materials involves extra work and may become an obstacle to implementation of multicultural curriculum. Social Literacy creates inexpensive, teacher-made books around cultural themes and materials that incorporate traditional texts and progressive methodology. Lessons focus on social participation, analysis skills, reflection, and action research integrated into social studies, economics, history and reading classes. Teachers then learn about the cultures of the class and the community alongside students (Kalantzis and Cope, 1985). Their approach offers challenging possibilities for further program development with interested teachers.

Teacher Corps

First enacted in 1965 as part of President Lyndon Johnson's Great Society, Teacher Corps was the largest federally funded program of teacher preparation. Its goal was "to move education from an exclusive education system . . . to an inclusive system through equality of opportunity for students and a new multicultural cohort of teachers" (Freiberg & Waxman, 1990, p. 618). Teacher Corps ended in 1982 under President Reagan's administration, but its effects are still felt. From 1965 through 1975, 13,000 African American, Hispanic, Asian, Indian American, and European American liberal arts college graduates were recruited. In 1980, 70% were still teaching (Frieberg, 1980). It offers a model for a pipeline of culturally diverse teachers so critically needed today.

Teacher Corps offered participants a non-traditional preparation program utilizing experimentation and innovation motivated by a sense of national urgency. The trainees and trainers shared a sense of dedication and purpose. Community members were encouraged to participate in order to develop culturally specific and relevant materials. Many participants tried new approaches and entered challenging, poorly paid positions in neighborhoods beset by problems. In the process, new approaches, curricula, and programs were developed. Such innovations as team teaching, flexible grouping, alternative schools, clinical site field experience, individualized instruction and multicultural education are credited to Teacher Corps (Freiberg, 1981, p. 232).

Marsh (1975) compared a group of 82 teachers who received Teacher Corps training with a similar group of education graduates from a teacher's college. All were observed presenting a lesson and each completed questionnaires as well as various measurement scales. Teacher Corps graduates most differed from the others in

> (a) developing culturally relevant curricula, (b) using community resources in teaching and initiating contact with parents, and (c) holding positive attitudes about reading development and causes of poverty in society. Teacher Corps graduates were more likely to blame poverty on the failure of the society to provide good education for low-income students; the control group considered poverty to be the result of lack of effort by the poor. (cited in Freiberg & Waxman, 1990, p. 619)

Peace Corps Teacher Training

Peace Corps is perhaps the best known experiential teacher training program in the country. Proposed in John Kennedy's presidential campaign of 1960, it coincided with and kindled a wave of idealism and hope on the part of many American young people to respond to world challenges. In its earliest days, Peace Corps prepared trainees with outdoor challenge programs, but this soon evolved into cultural and linguistic preparation for specific destinations.

Teacher educators working with teacher candidates in culturally diverse schools can learn something from the Peace Corps training concepts. Teachers, like volunteers in Third World countries, experience challenges which arise from conflicting cultural assumptions, psychological stress and culture shock. Peace Corps must prepare volunteers to do on-the-job problem solving, learn from their students and the community where they live, and make sense of different learning styles, languages and cultural expectations. A few studies have been done of teachers who were former Peace Corps volunteers, and who effectively incorporate their multicultural experiences (Abi Nader, 1990; Peterson, 1991).

IMPLICATIONS FOR MULTICULTURAL TEACHER EDUCATION

Domestic or overseas cultural immersion experiences should have a priority in the preparation of teachers. Experiential components should include opportunities to reflect on critical incidents that occur during cultural immersions. With overseas programs, there should be opportunity to network with members of similar cultural and linguistic communities in this country after returning from abroad.

Mentoring of new teachers by experienced teachers effective with culturally diverse children holds promise. Teacher educators can foster the development of collegial professional relationships which allow the mentors to share expertise while becoming professionally rejuvenated through participation in action research in classrooms. The selection of mentors is challenging and can determine the success or failure of a new teacher's professional induction. Continued efforts in higher education to recruit a cadre of teacher educators who can articulate the perspective of *others* is important as well.

The Social Literacy curriculum developed in Australia by Kalantzis and Cope produced useful multicultural texts that show normal human activity in diverse cultural settings. They are neither contrived nor stereotyped, and they belong throughout the curriculum in every lesson and every subject. At the same time, these materials guide students and teachers to find answers in each other and within local communities.

The Teacher Corps increased the numbers of teachers from underrepresented groups, especially people of color in America's classrooms. It encouraged staff to work in inner-city and rural neighborhoods where teachers are hard to recruit and retain. It was effective in developing and disseminating many educational innovations. We must look for positive ways to reinvent this concept for the 1990s, emphasizing equity and effectiveness.

Peace Corps has provided extensive overseas, often Third World, experiences. Teacher educators can learn something from the types of teacher training. At least some of its experiential components should be an integral part of domestic teacher preparation. They offer powerful means to change fundamental attitudes by providing a way to test assumptions and biases against different realities.

Teacher educators should look to diverse communities and school districts near their campus and teach future educators how to develop this resource through specific efforts which can be refined in practice. Tutoring programs that match college students with at-risk students in public schools have demonstrated promise through creating powerful one-to-one relationships that change a tutor's understanding of how school policies impact on individual linguistic minority and students of color (Fischetti, Maloy & Heffley, 1988). By participating in experiential programs, teachers learn to comprehend how cultural misunderstanding, structural discrimination, and culture shock affects families, schools, and students. These educators can then develop tools and strategies to bridge cultures, and to advocate for all students.

CONCLUSION

Changes in the demographics of a community population often catch teachers and school communities unprepared for newcomers, *others*, who drop into classes mid-year, whose language, cultural expectations of teachers and schools, previous skills and personal support systems differ from those we are more accustomed to. Banks pictured an ideal setting:

> The school should be a cultural environment where acculturation takes place: both teachers and students should assimilate some of the views, perceptions, and ethos of each other as they interact. . . . It is essential that schools . . . acculturate students rather than foster tight ethnic boundaries because all students . . . must develop the knowledge, attitudes and skills needed to become successful citizens of their cultural communities, their nation-states and the global world community. (Banks, 1986, p. 14)

Teachers, often assumed to be the sole obstacles in implementing effective education for today's diverse student population, cannot do the job alone; in fact, they have less power to make change than administrators, government policy makers and teacher educators. Institutional decisions often affect minority students negatively, as is the case with tracking or monocultural staffing practices (Grant & Sleeter, 1987).

Unfortunately, many in education too often assume that newcomers must assimilate to the culture of the school. Teachers themselves are products of institutions that have been largely monocultural, even as a diverse student population has passed through it. When teachers perceive their primary responsibility is to impart a prescribed body of knowledge, many find security in becoming experts on their curriculum. Multicultural education is relegated to something for holidays in elementary school, or occasional literature and social studies classes at best (Sleeter, 1989). But every teacher needs to learn how to incorporate cultural diversity in teaching, to listen to students and to acknowledge their different strengths, goals, needs and ways of knowing.

Teachers can help students learn to live in a diverse world, by fostering the ability to value differences as well as commonalties. Teachers and students need to learn to look for and appreciate similarities of human nature that are found beneath surface differences such as physical features, accent, clothing or accessories. Teachers need multicultural perspectives to evaluate a display of "oppositional culture," and discover students who want to learn but do not want to give up their own sense of self or community.

To accomplish this, teacher educators should integrate experiential learning into their curriculum. Developing a multicultural perspective in teaching is the best way to discover the quality that exists in each *other*, providing the means and the vision to nurture a new generation of teachers and students able to develop the potential that lies within us all.

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